



## OFFICERS OF THE ASSOCIATION

---

### PRESIDENT:

William A. Shanklin, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut.

### VICE-PRESIDENT:

James A. Blaisdell, Pomona College, Claremont, Calif.

### SECRETARY-TREASURER:

Raymond M. Hughes, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

### ADDITIONAL MEMBERS OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE:

Ellen C. Sabin, Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Alexander Meiklejohn, Amherst College, Amherst, Massachusetts.

### EXECUTIVE SECRETARY:

Robert L. Kelly, 19 S. LaSalle St., Chicago, Illinois.

### REPRESENTATIVES TO AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION:

For one year, John H. MacCracken, Lafayette College, Easton, Pennsylvania.

For two years, William W. Guth, Goucher College, Baltimore, Maryland.

For three years, Donald J. Cowling, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota.

**ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES  
BULLETIN**

---

Vol. V

April, 1919

No. 3

---

**ADDRESSES AT  
FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING**

---

Edited by

**Raymond M. Hughes**  
Secretary of the Association

---

Published by

**THE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES**  
19 So. La Salle St., Chicago, Ill.

February, March, April and November

Annual Subscription, \$3.00

Entered as second-class matter March 10, 1917, at the Post Office at  
Chicago, Illinois, under Act of March 3, 1879

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
The Colleges and Our National Ideals:	
1. Edmund Janes James.....	3
2. William A. Shanklin.....	7
3. Charles Wesley Flint.....	12
4. Samuel A. Lough.....	19
5. J. Campbell White.....	23
6. William H. Crawford.....	26
7. Henry S. Pritchett.....	29
The Need of Architectural Instruction in American Col- leges. George C. Nimmons.....	35
College Financial Statements. Trevor Arnett.....	50
Insurance and Annuities for College Teachers. Henry S. Pritchett .....	69
Co-operative Purchasing. John C. Dinsmore.....	86
In What Ways Can the Relations Between Colleges and Universities Be Strengthened?	
1. C. A. Duniway.....	90
2. Frederick C. Ferry.....	96
Co-operation Between Colleges and Secondary Schools In Promoting Education for Citizenship. Evarts B. Greene.....	103
Federal Leadership in Education. John Henry Mac- Cracken .....	112
The College and International Relations:	
1. James A. Blaisdell.....	123
2. Fernand Baldensperger .....	131
The Relation Between French "Enseignement Second- aire" and American Colleges. Mlle. M. Mar- faing .....	141
The College in the War and After. Parke R. Kolbe..	144
Military Training in the Colleges. F. J. Morrow.....	158



## **THE COLLEGES AND OUR NATIONAL IDEALS \***

### **I. Edmund J. James, President University of Illinois.**

Members of the Association: I had no idea when I came in here this evening that the Chairman was going to call on me for any remarks, but I am very much obliged to him for giving me this opportunity to wish for this Association and its work the very greatest success.

I have followed the organization and development of the Association of American Colleges with a great deal of interest. I have tried to get hold of everything that has been printed with your signature and stamp upon it. I have tried to get the minutes of your Association as far as I could get them and find out what you were doing.

This great war has taught us one thing beyond everything else in the educational field and that is the essential oneness of American education, both in its lower grades and in its higher grades. It has brought to us for the first time in the history of the country a recognition of an official sort the like of which certainly this country has never seen before, and I doubt whether any other country has ever seen it to the same extent. I believe the result of it all is going to be greatly to the benefit of every educational agency that is at work in the field, and if we react properly to that stimulus, I believe the result is going to be greatly to the benefit of the people of the United States through the better organization and the better development of our educational work.

I have been engaged now for fifteen years in one branch of the system of public education. Of course, I have had to emphasize in the work that I have been doing, the efficiency and the significance of that particular phase. As a boy, I got my education in the public school, the little public school established by the district in which I lived,

---

\*A series of addresses at the opening banquet.

from a teacher who was paid out of the public funds. Subsequently I had the advantage of the instruction in institutions, neither one of which had ever received any great amount of assistance in a financial way from the public treasury; and since I have been at work as a teacher, professor, and administrator, I have been in non-tax supported schools and tax supported schools almost an equal number of years; and the older I have grown, the larger my experience, the more convinced I am that one of the great excellencies of our American system of education lies in this cooperation between what may be called private and public education or privately supported and publicly supported education.

I have no hesitation in saying that I think, take it all around, the American people have shown off to better advantage in this great world conflict considering the time which we were in it, the purposes with which we entered it, the policies which we announced, and the persistence with which we followed them out,—as an American citizen I believe we showed off to better advantage than any other people in the world, and I will make no exception, even on behalf of that wonderful people, as many of us have come to see and all of us that knew anything about history fully appreciated before, France itself. (Applause.)

As I look over and try to find out in my own mind the causes for this I believe it is to a large extent due to the education of the great numbers of people in our colleges, in our small colleges scattered over this whole country from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

The older I grow and the more I see of the things that college students do after they leave college, the more I am convinced that after all the important thing for a young man in college is to get his face set in the right direction, to get the proper ideals and the proper inspiration in himself. This is far more important than any particular amount of training, than any particular amount of knowledge which he receives. And, that is just as true of the engineer and the physician and the lawyer as it is of the graduate of the college of liberal arts and science.

I have been for fifteen years president of one of the

large technical schools of the country; one of the large engineering schools of the country. Friends, I would today if I were a betting man, which I am not, bet my money on a graduate of the college of liberal arts and science who had decided to go into engineering after he graduated and had never studied engineering a single hour before he left the institution and went into the practical work, than on a graduate engineer who had failed to get this liberal outlook; far more certainty of him making a success if he has the right attitude toward the world and the right feelings in himself, than the man who has had four years of technical work preparing to be an engineer without having gained this correct point of view.

Now, one may say that is true of engineering, but it is not of medicine. But I am willing to join issue with him on that. I would rather take a man who goes out from college without having any training in the specific things that lead to medicine, if he has got the right kind of stuff in him and then takes up the study of medicine, than the man who has spent two or four years of that time in a medical school and failed to get this fundamental training.

I believe in large part we owe the fairest fruits of American Education to the American College; the American College of the old type; the American college that does not exist, of course, as a separate unit in any of our great state universities or any of our very large universities which have become inspired, as so many of them have, with the essentially technical ideas.

Now, friends, no matter how small the college in which you are, no matter how remote your work is, you are men who can give life and inspiration to the young people who come in contact with you and you are doing a far more important work than the professor of mechanical engineering or the professor of psychology with the top notch college students, if we have to choose between one or the other.

I did not always think that and it is the last six or seven years of my experience that has changed my attitude on many of these fundamental topics, and if I might have my choice as I walk out over the campus and run up against the boys of putting into a boy's heart an ambition to do the

right thing in the right way, and the other option of telling him something new and something larger in any branch of human science. I would infinitely prefer the former.

And I believe, friends, that the membership in this great Association are engaged more directly in giving our young men what they need in the great struggle of life if we have to choose between them than are we; I say that you are more largely responsible for the great spiritual uplift coming from what we have done in the war than those of us who are responsible for the big technical schools. If we can only bring about the same kind of result we shall be accomplishing a better result than if we should be successful only in the particular technical work in which we are engaged.

I wish you all Godspeed.

I noticed one of the addresses in this program tomorrow is entitled "Federal Education, or the Participation of the Federal Government in Education."

That has been a fond idea of mine ever since I began to teach and I have never lost an opportunity to hitch up Uncle Sam to our education.

But we are going to have in that, as we have already to a very marked extent, in my opinion, a danger to guard against when we get Uncle Sam linked up, when we put him into the cart to draw; we will find that he will begin to determine for us in many ways through the agency of the Federal government policies which it were infinitely better for the people of the United States to determine for themselves, each locality, if you please, for itself. (Applause.)

We have all had the experience of the S. A. T. C. Uncle Sam is an awfully wise old gentleman, but he talks like a driveling idiot sometimes through the mouth of the second lieutenant. (Laughter and applause.)

Some three or four years ago we found it necessary to drop a man from the faculty of the University of Illinois. In about six months after that time he walked into the office of the Dean of the College of Agriculture, Dr. Davenport, one of the most eminent men in his line in the country, and he said, "I have come out to inspect the work of Pro-

fessor Hopkins." Dr. Davenport looked at him and he said, "What?" "I have come out to inspect the work of Professor Hopkins." "Why," he said, "where have you come out from?" (Laughter) He said, "From Washington, representing the Department of Agriculture of the United States Government." "Well," he said, "what word did you use?" "Well," he said, "I have come out to observe the work of Professor Hopkins." "Oh," he said, "That is an entirely different proposition. We will sit down and talk a while."

Now, we will have that, of course, to guard against in this steady and persistent enlargement of the Federal power over our state and local power. But I think it will go forward steadily and I believe on the whole it is going to be a good result and we must keep always in mind that it will not be good unless through the agencies that are open to us we make the source through which it all comes clean and sweet and help make the men, of necessity, that the government selects, men who are capable of administering it in a proper way. (Applause.)

---

## II. William A. Shanklin, President of Wesleyan University.

When I was honored with an invitation to speak for ten minutes on "The Colleges and Our National Ideals," I must confess I was puzzled to know how I was to treat in a few minutes such an important topic. I felt, and still feel, myself somewhat in the position of one of my colleagues who was once asked to give a five-minute talk on Hamlet.

As the world is being born again, our eyes are beholding the removal of many things that are shaken in order that—how history will finish the sentence depends upon the wisdom and the courage with which the men of today, and especially the men of America, face what is an unprecedented opportunity and a menacing peril.

A new way of speaking of nations has become current in the speech of men. We speak of the soul of America,

in spite of its one hundred millions of inhabitants, as we do of the soul of a poet, or of a philosopher, or of a politician. There has been disclosed to us much of the winsome beauty of the soul of France, in the purification and strengthening of the spirit of the French people. And long since we came to know that it was with the soul of Germany that we were in conflict—not merely its destructive guns and its poisonous gases, its brute force and its torturing barbarities; but its corrupted soul.

Is not the adoption of this mode of speech in itself a revelation of a new spirit? In an age when we seemed to be so blinded as to real values that we expressed them in terms of money, luxury, social status, and vain show—we have been compelled by the war to see into the soul of things, to look at the ideas and ideals, moods, and tempers of the nations of the earth, and estimate them, not according to their far-stretching territories, the treasures in their banks, the marvels of their commerce and industry; but according to the spirit they show, the way they think, their attitude toward goodness and beauty and truth, how they treat their neighbors, and whether their will is a will of righteousness and mercy and world-helpfulness, or of unlimited power, selfish dominance, and insatiable greed.

In its soul of souls, the war of wars through which we have just passed was religious. It was a war between Odin and Christ. America never did so Christ-like a thing as when she went to war, April the 6th, 1917, resolved to bear on high the sacred vessel of the world's freedom, purity, and honor; determined that the worship of force, uncontrolled by moral laws, should not be imposed upon the whole world by William the Damned, with his fit Hohenzollern heraldic device of a black bird of prey, with bloody beak and claws, on a field of gold.

We may well be proud of the revulsion of the dignity of the American people when they did come to recognize the utter rottenness of the character of the German government, and that the United States was under moral obligation to aid in establishing, defending and extending



Right; that, to the limit of her strength, America was responsible in a partnership with everything that goes on in this world of God. We could not, by geographical position or political isolation, escape; for "Right has no boundaries, and Duty admits of no isolation." The great force that united and steeled all hearts in this country was a profound conviction that not only our safety, but the security of civilization itself, demanded that Germany be beaten; that everything else was trivial and incidental and inconsequential.

The war has been the salvation of the American people. It has saved our soul as a nation, and our souls as individuals. The great compensation to the American people for its horrors, for the price we had to pay, is not in saving our own integrity or in making the world safe for democracy; it is that in sacrificing ourselves for an ideal we found our own souls.

Thank God it was not possible for the supreme hour in the world's history to be made complete without America's sacrifice and suffering with the other free peoples of the world. The refining process of suffering, the purifying fires of righteous indignation, the thrilling sense of high community of ideals—these redeeming agencies, purging the world of its dross and branding the mark of Cain upon the apostate foe of mankind, brought us twenty-one months ago, with pulsations of joy, to take our place in the great war for world-enfranchisement, beside the indomitable soldiers of France and Great Britain and Belgium, saluting with our reverence those veterans who erected new and indestructible barriers of liberty along the Marne, beside the Somme, and before the ramparts of Verdun.

Not every soldier from America was fired with a passion to suppress wrong and establish righteousness. Men act from mixed motives; but deeper than anything else, we may be sure, was this passion for the right in the hosts of young men who left our colleges and in hundreds of thousands besides. They held with Edmund Burke that "there is no evil comparable in its effect on the character

of a nation or an individual to that of craven submission to wrong." Therefore, out they went, with one accord, to destroy wrong, to fight for right, for an ideal, for a cause—the cause of their country, the cause of humanity, the cause of God.

And in this response to the appeal to the higher emotions, the college men of America led. God forbid that I should seem to imply that the line dividing the noble from the ignoble, in patriotism or in the ethics of citizenship, is a college education. Patriotism in its purest form exists in every social order of our land. But we are considering the nation's ideals and our colleges; and in that call for liberty, for righteousness that filled the ears and stirred the hearts of our nation, the college men of America, with no boastfulness or vaunting, but with quiet and serene courage and determination, took their places in our great army that had no insignificant part in bringing the war to a speedy conclusion on such a basis that just peace may reign in this world. For the most tremendous conflict that the world has known, the American college man instantly answered, "Adsum"! Those who scoffed at liberal education, today stand mute and, we hope, shamed before his resplendent record.

During the past two years it has been made patent that the college is the citadel for the nurturing and fostering of those great ideals upon which this Republic was founded: that it is the sanctuary of pure Americanism—not the Americanism of the spineless "conscientious objector" with his pale and puny sense of duty; not the Americanism of the greedy, oily profiteer; not the Americanism of the selfish, shrivelled socialist; but the Americanism of Washington and Adams and Franklin, and Robert Morris and Abraham Lincoln and John Hay and Theodore Roosevelt. With wills trained not only to strength but also to morals, our college men went forth, as a wise man once declared, "knowledge and conduct going hand in hand," to bring to pass that which was accomplished on November the 11th—the rooting out of the world of Prussianism,

Junkerism, Hohenzollernism, militarism, feudalism, absolutism,—the survival of ancient savagery under the domination of the most modern science—an anomaly and an excrescence. With young Rupert Brooke, our college lads said, "Now God be thanked, Who has matched us with His hour"!

Apart from the ideals for which our country entered the war, there are, however, other aims for which a hard fight must still be waged. The greatest menace of our democracy is in the unwillingness of trained minds to assume the duties of political leadership. Our country has commended democracy to the world: but dare we invite close inspection of our own political institution? With the same devotion that our college men have offered themselves during the past two years, they must dedicate their trained strength to public life. What our country demands in these perilous and promising days before us is a race of statesmen trained in the college, as I think it was Van Dyke who said, to estimate upon an historic basis the trend of events, nurtured in the college upon the ideals of a fervent, white-souled patriotism, kindled in the college with that sublime ambition to serve the state for the state's sake, which makes citizenship a high profession and the birth-right within the nation a holy and unsullied trust.

If knowledge alone is not the end of education, as this group of men here gathered maintain, but rather knowledge penetrated by insight and alive with motive, there must be in our colleges in even greater degree henceforth than there has been in the past, the process which sends forth a man with permanent idealism,—great not in selfishness and isolation, not as he wraps his academic robes about him with an I-am-holier-and-better-than-thou attitude; but great as he is able to take up most of other men into himself, type in himself of a true democracy, and great basically because he is neither unwilling nor afraid nor unable to put his conscience into all his mental operations—eager to serve and able to advance the standards of our national life—conscious of his constructive mission: the man who fulfills

in himself Milton's famous definition of education, which, in its comprehensiveness of terms and its nobleness of purpose, can never be surpassed,—“I call a complete and generous education that which enables a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war:” the man who knows that the great problem of America, aye, of the world, is the problem not of physical but of moral and spiritual mastery.

All that the college man knows must go out with him into all his life, and must be no separate thing; must be part of the father in the family circle, of the citizen who votes at the polls, if need be—as need has been so lately—of the soldier who fights in the ranks.

He will be full of courage and of conscience, and out of their perfect union will come a clearer and a clearer insight. Following Him who said that He came not to be ministered unto but to minister, he will grow strong and successful with belief in himself, and still more with belief in mankind, and still more with belief in God.

### III. Charles Wesley Flint, President of Cornell College.

America, the major ally, which lost the least blood and made the most money during the period of the war, is not in any immediate danger from the Bolsheviki, but it seems to me it is facing the most critical struggle the world has ever known between idealism and materialism. The question now is whether the idealism which drove us into the war, welded us into nationality and became the Shibboleth of humanity, can be transmuted into the reorganizations of peace upon which we have launched. We will be either better or worse in these days immediately ahead of us.

Materialism had its talons rather deep, some think, in the soul of America before the war and we rejoice in that idealism which has seemed to sweep over us as a nation. Either that idealism will hold the helm or materialism will return seven-fold in its strength and its evil upon us. These are the days we are facing. The power of having

and holding ideals is somewhat at stake in America just now.

Will our nation be governed in the future years that are ahead of us by expediency, by an American kultur, or will it be governed by idealism? The answer to that question, it seems to me, depends considerably upon what the colleges have been and are doing and the extent to which their work has reached out and touched the life of America.

From the very earliest days in this republic the colleges of this land have been the exponents of idealism, the creators of ideals, individually and nationally, which have held and moulded our people. It has been the peculiar province—it has been the peculiar duty—of the colleges of America to render this service—to create, to generate and maintain, to transmit ideals, to emphasize when needed and enlarge when the enlarging time came, in short to *lead* in national ideals, to lead the moral vision or the ideals of this nation.

In the division of labor that has existed between the college and the university, the college's function has been to broaden and to deepen; the university's function to focus. The very atmosphere and purpose of the college make it the culture ground of ideals; the atmosphere and purpose of the university has been that proper and necessary materialism, necessary to existence as a nation and to success in the material world. Perhaps I had better say the college promotes idealism and the university, of necessity, by this division of labor, utilitarianism. They are complementary, as we know, one to one another, but I am speaking of their distinctive characteristics and this distinction between them is,—the college stands more for ideals and the university stands more for professional efficiency and technical skill. The aim of the colleges is to produce the man, the finished product of the educational system, as Professor La Hovre says about the universities of England. The aim of the university is to produce the scholar, the scientist, the lawyer, the doctor, the engineer, etc. The aim of the college is broad human attainment; the aim of the university is technical professional or vocational skill, to which we have already referred.

The college deals with the fundamentals and the university deals with the specializing processes.

Now, in that very distinction which we recognize merely by the repeating of it, I claim that the place, the peculiar place, where ideals are created, generated and maintained, is in the college. The college will create and the university will reflect. The college will formulate and the university will adopt; the college will lead and the others will reflect. The university will reflect the average idealism which is around about it, the idealism of those who come to it.

In our educational system—which is a unity as we have heard this evening—in our educational system will be found a spirit and attitude, a reaching out of something which is intangible but real and gripping which we call idealism, which will mould the future of the nation, indeed has been moulding this nation and will continue to mould it.

In this educational system, especially in relation to this vital thing, the college has the strategic place. From the college go forth the teachers, and the teachers of teachers for the public and the high schools; from the college go forth the scholars into the universities for technical training, and they will bear with them an idealism which will become the characteristic of the whole nation as it is thus dispersed.

We know the nature of the German educational system and the way it has been the vehicle of transmitting the ideals of some into the life of that nation; so into the life of America will go through the colleges the ideals which are there cherished.

Upon the colleges, then, rests the responsibility for the national ideals; upon the colleges rests the responsibility as to whether we will even have ideals or not, to say nothing of the exact content of those national ideals.

The colleges have the conviction. The very purpose of their existence, the very reason why you are giving your lives to these colleges is primarily this very thing to which I have referred, this service of idealism and, in practical translation, the service of our national ideals.



Having said that I want just briefly to refer to one national ideal for which I desire to make a plea. I want to make a plea for stronger support and clearer leadership from this, the culture ground of American idealism, from this, the primary fountain of our national ideals—and I want to make a plea for clearer understanding and clearer leadership for one new American ideal too long neglected, too long misunderstood, and that even today must be mentioned with an explanation, namely, internationalism.

Now, banish at once any thought that I am going to deal with any phase of socialism. I protest against as fine a word as "internationalism," as meaningful a word as "internationalism" becoming a monopoly of any group of red socialists just as I protest against the term "pro-American" being made the shibboleth of a Hun-beloved Hearst, be-brewered Brisbane or the little mayor of a big city, my guest relationship preventing me from being more specific this evening.

Some terms I am not willing to abandon and I am not willing to admit any copyright to this word; because it serves my purpose better than any other word which I can use; I demand the right to use it and to use it in the sense which I desire to read into it myself.

The college is where the horizons of men's minds are shattered and extended so that they stretch beyond the present time and stretch beyond the nation of which they form a part. It is the place where we must train men to that understanding, that sympathy, that interest and that inspiration which will make them indeed citizens of the world, men who will think in world terms and men who will act from the basis of world ideals. This is the call I want to make this evening, that our national ideals shall include this new day, I am willing to call it, in the ideal which we must give our thought to, which we must give our attention to in these significant days when it is having its application over on the other side.

Now, we are told we are going to have a renaissance of technical and vocational education and, gentlemen, we

recognize it, recognize the need for it and recognize the need for Federal support; but if this means that it is in any way to eclipse the cultural education, then we are in danger of building up that which I referred to a little while ago, an American Kultur which will eclipse and overcome the ideals of civilization which are a basis for the ideal for which I am pleading at this time.

Some of you remember that contrast by Professor La Hovre of the University of Louvain in describing German Kultur, when he said the difference between kultur and civilization is that kultur is national and civilization is international.

The college must be oriented by civilization rather than by culture, and the only way that we can save this ideal amid technical training is to so inspire students in the college that they carry over the ideals of broad civilization and not yield themselves to any narrowing confines of kultur whether it be American or any other kind.

Just at the present time we are going to choose between that narrow, selfish isolation which has had, some say, an historical support in this land, and that broader cosmopolitan citizenship which will make us more citizens of the world. We are making the choice at the present time.

I know what our histories have taught us. I know how the "Father of our country" has been quoted and requoted, and quoted by some who must have made him turn over in his grave, in regard to the isolation we should have in regard to Europe, and non-participation in the affairs of Europe. That wise statesman with the original colonies and their weaknesses upon his hands, had to convince England and equally France that they were no longer dependencies of any other nation but a new and independent nation. But I could never believe that great statesman meant the policy he had enunciated for that time should continue for all time, and these words written in December, 1795, surely do not in any way indicate that he intended it to be the policy for these days,—“Nothing short of self respect and that justice which is essential to national char-

acter ought to involve us in war." Let me repeat it in the light of the last two or three years: "Nothing short of self respect and that justice which is essential to national character ought to involve us in war, for, sure I am, that if this country is preserved in tranquillity twenty years longer it may bid defiance in a just cause to any power whatever, such in that time will be its population, wealth and resources."

No, I have not felt that it was just to George Washington to be quoting him in times like these. But even if that were permissible, trying to fit the swaddling clothes of the infant republic of George Washington's day onto the virile giant of Roosevelt's day, would be grotesquely funny if it were not for the sinister manipulations of demagogues and the ignorant misunderstanding of the larger implications of history and ignorance of all facts of history of our own land, due to some distorted histories used in our educational system.

No, I believe if he were here with us today—it is easy to say what we think one of the heroes of our past would have done—but somehow I have the idea we would have been in the war earlier than we were if he had been with us.

Against these sneering whining appeals to selfish isolation,—and my remarks are tinged by the fact that I happened to pick up one of the biggest dailies this week and read in an editorial a statement that we ought to call the President home as soon as possible and stop him from "pulling chestnuts out of the fire" and get him back here, I say, my remarks are tinged a little by having read such sentiment which is having too large a hearing in this country. Against these sneering and whining appeals for selfish isolation, the college must send out the men and the college must send out the ideals which will make our citizens throughout this nation ready for international friendship, which must take a practical and tangible form in some kind of league of nations. And as to what kind or what form, our idealism, the ideal which we hope to see established when we can get to it, must be, of course, more or less

modified by what is possible at the present time. Our hope, my hope, at least, and the hope of many of us, is in the unanimity which seems to be coming between the English speaking allies, which indeed must be fundamental to any understanding or any league of that kind.

I rejoice in the victory, in the sweeping victory, in the unanimous indorsement that Lloyd George has behind him to represent the English people, to represent the English nation in this conference that is to come. I would that the indorsement were as strong behind our own President. I think it is true, however, that the people of Europe have not interpreted the results in November as a repudiation of the idealism, but only of the partisanism, of our leader. And he goes there as a representative of the idealism of America, for which he is so well qualified, for which he is so admirably fitted.

America is strategically placed and signally prepared, I believe, by Almighty God for this great task that has been thrust upon her at this time. Blood related by her polyglot citizenship to all the nations of the earth, situated at the cross roads of the continents, without selfish or entangling alliances with any other nation of the world, yet with relationships to all, I think she stands forth peculiarly as the leader in this great international movement, in this establishment of world citizenship with its obligations. And at this time we are proud of the position which it is ours to occupy, humbled though we are at the insignificance of the price we paid in leading up to it; humbled though we are as we stand in the presence of those who have made such great sacrifices. But the duty of America, and therefore the duty of the American college, the culture-ground of idealism, the duty upon us at the present time is to bring forth world citizens, to bring forth statesmen who are capable of taking their place in this new call for world citizenship, international friendship, and its practical form, the League of Nations; not less American but more American, not less patriotic but more patriotic, because international in understanding, in interest and in sympathy—

not less servants of America, because they are servants of mankind and champions of humanity. Men should dare to believe that it is true of institutions as it is of individuals that he that saveth his life shall lose it and he that loseth his life in certain relationships shall find it.

---

IV. Samuel A. Lough, President of Baker University.

As I conceive it, the college has a three-fold function to perform. Better stated, perhaps, it is a single function with three phases, none of which can be complete without the supporting service of the others. It is the function of the American college to define, or to help the student to define, national ideals. I need not say to you that such definition is necessary. We all know it is necessary for all citizens, and certainly it is necessary for those who are just coming into the relation of citizenship. Our young people come to us very often assuming that they have a clear conception of these great national ideals. The very assumption stands in the way of their getting it. This assumption must be removed before any real service can be rendered to these young people. They are mistaken. They do not have a clear conception of the ideals; much less have they any great convictions concerning them.

We need but to consider some of the most common of these ideals to bring this home to us with great force. Take our common fundamental national ideal of freedom. I suppose practically every freshman thinks that he knows what freedom is and that he is in no need of any further definition. He has heard, perhaps, and probably has in large measure proved immune to, the suggestion that he must make a distinction between freedom and license. But this has not had very much effect upon him. Perhaps it would be too much to expect it to have much effect upon the freshman since it has so little effect upon a great many mature citizens. He certainly needs to be brought to recognize that freedom does not mean action independent of law, but he needs equally to be led to see that freedom does mean independent action in accordance with law; not

only to see it, but to feel it as a great conviction that will give him moral seriousness and moral earnestness at all times.

The same is true of our national ideal of democracy. I happen to be one of those who hold that the American people (and when I say the American people I recognize that I am one of them) have yet to work out in a large way this ideal of democracy. I do not mean to suggest that we do not know the meaning of the word. I do mean to suggest that we do not have an adequate conception of what democracy is. If we should ask the ordinary freshman to state his conception of democracy, he would give us instantly some such statement as this: "Government where the people have the right to determine the order of their life in its various relations. The statement is very good, and yet I believe we will all recognize that this is but the form of democracy. Unless somehow we can put into it a soul, a vitalizing element such as we try to express by the term "brotherhood," we cannot have democracy defined in the sense that we can put it into action and expect to get the results we are aiming at.

More than that we need to help our students to recognize and realize that we cannot have political democracy, even when conceived as vitalized by the soul of brotherhood, except as we work it up somehow with whatever is sound in the conception and operation of industrial democracy. I do not mean to discuss industrial democracy, and I hope that I will not be misunderstood in this brief reference to it. I mean to suggest that somehow we have not adequately defined democracy as a working national ideal until we connect with it—shall we call it social justice; shall we call it a working order, or a social organization, in which the achievement of his own good by each individual will harmonize with an equal opportunity for the good of every other citizen? This must become our passionate conviction as well as our conception of democracy.

The same is true with reference to the ideal of patriotism, of loyalty and of others. I say that the function of



the college is, first of all, to define, or to help the student to define, these great national ideals. The college is peculiarly equipped for this work. We have, in proportion as we have a sound and strong faculty, a body of men and women who are fitted to do this. We would assume that they have fair conceptions, perhaps as good conceptions of these great national ideals as are to be found among any class of our people. More than that, the students are highly responsive to the treatment that they should receive from a strong and vigorous faculty. More and above all, the college is peculiarly fortunate in that it has everywhere the scientific spirit, the scientific method, readiness on the part of the student as well as skill on the part of the members of the faculty through study to relive the struggle, the experience of the human race where these great ideals were discovered, worked out and matured. The student in reliving this experience of the race may come to have an independent, conscious mastery of the conception. It is his and he knows it is his. It is his great and lasting possession.

It is the function of the college to express as well as to define national ideals. So true, it seems to me, is this that the work of definition cannot be completed without expression; for I believe we will all agree that mere definition without expression will soon evaporate. How are we to train boys and girls in our colleges to give wholesome, vigorous expression to the national ideal of freedom? This is a great and difficult problem. We are working on it and we are making some progress; but the task is very, very great.

I am tempted to make a reference here that may or may not be condemned by the majority of this company. During the war we have heard a great deal of the value of military discipline to train young men in prompt obedience. I think that military training is admirably adapted to secure military obedience, and when we need military obedience it is the sort of training that we should have and to which we should give ourselves with the enthusiasm

recently exhibited; but I equally believe, and believe as a great conviction, that military obedience is not the kind of obedience we need. What we need is moral obedience; that obedience which will come when the challenge of a situation wins the approval of the judgment and then the whole moral energy of the person responds because it is the right thing to do. He will do it without external pressure, but by virtue of resistless internal pressure. The time was never more favorable than it is at present to begin, if not a new order, a more definite order in a high grade of independent conduct in accordance with law.

The same is true of the ideal of democracy. As commonly conceived a democracy is a government in which the people rule. To this must be added the idea that even the rule of the people is responsible to some order or power. Our young people may be made to see now as never before, certainly this generation can be made to see as generations preceding could not be made to see, that there is no such thing as the sovereignty of a state wherein there exists the right to impose obligations, while the state itself is responsible to no power whatsoever. We have come to the point, and it is one of the great revelations, certainly one of the great truths emphasized by the struggle through which we have just passed, where we recognize that the state or any other power must justify itself by virtue of obedience to what we call the moral order, those demands of nature which condition strong, true, wholesome life both for the individual and for society. I think we have the great opportunity of emphasizing this as never before and of successfully appealing to our young men and women to enter upon a course of conduct which will develop and maintain an order of life increasingly sound and satisfactory.

- In the third place, it is the function of the college to still further fashion or develop national ideals. In this brief statement it is sufficient to say that in proportion as we define and express our national ideals we will still further fashion them; for the fashioning or the developing

is a result of increasing discovery and of becoming actively related to the great force, or truth, discovered.

So, men, it seems to me that so far as the relation of the college and our national ideals is concerned it may be fairly stated that the college has a three-fold function: to define, to express, and to fashion. None of these can stand alone, can afford to do without the others; but any one of them will become great and valuable in proportion as it stands in perfect union with the others.

---

V. J. Campbell White, President College of Wooster.

America holds a great many forms of world leadership, but by far the most significant of them all it seems to me is its moral and spiritual leadership of the world. President Wilson is the greatest preacher of righteousness that the world has seen since the Apostle Paul, and the Apostle Paul never had the kind of audience that President Wilson has had for the last year or two. The thinking people of the world have been literally waiting for his messages which have been militant Christianity from first to last. Never before has moral truth been preached with such power to such a world audience.

These have been judgment days for unrighteousness and judgment days are instruction days. The old principle laid down by the Prophet Isaiah has not been put out of date, "When Thy judgments are in the earth, the inhabitants of the world will learn righteousness." It would seem as if God has been running his plow-share of judgment through the mental and moral processes of the nations until today the mind of the world is open to progressive, constructive religious thought to a degree which history has never witnessed before. My deep concern is that we shall measure up worthily as a nation to our opportunity of religious world leadership.

The colleges have now the finest opportunity of all their experience to pay back the debt they owe to the churches which founded them by creating and training the leadership needed for the great moral and spiritual changes

to be wrought in this new world era into which we are now being ushered.

Every great college in America, at least all of the older ones, was founded by the church and primarily for the training up of a competent ministry. Up to the year 1846 twenty-five per cent of all the graduates of American colleges went into the ministry. The church now has a right to ask of the college that it train the leaders needed to meet this world crisis and opportunity.

The two things I am most concerned about now are that we shall have a workable league of nations to enforce peace until we can have a workable league of churches to create permanent conditions of peace. For, in the final analysis, peace is a moral issue. You never can have permanent peace in this world until you have permanent righteousness; and you never can have permanent righteousness until religion produces it; and it has got to be vital, up-to-date religion to do it.

The Prophet Isaiah also said, "The time shall come in the latter days when God will teach us of His ways, and we will walk in His paths." And then he added, "The nations shall beat their swords into plow-shares and their spears into pruning hooks; nations shall not lift up sword against nation, neither shall they learn war any more." That time is coming, but it is coming as the result of the moral and spiritual processes among men and nations that only the Christian church can promote on a world scale.

When Vice President Fairbanks came back from his trip around the world, which he took while the American fleet was on its world-trip, he said, "One properly equipped mission station in the far East will do more to promote the permanent peace of the world than a whole fleet of battleships." That statement was repeated to Admiral Mahan, recognized on both sides of the Atlantic as the greatest naval strategist of his generation, and he was asked whether or not it was a fair statement of the case. After thinking it over he said, "Undoubtedly that is a true statement of the facts." And yet America, which is giving

more than all the rest of the world put together to propagate Christ's permanent peace program around the world, gives only as much in a whole year for that entire propaganda as the cost of one battleship!

The time has come when America ought in a worthy and adequate way not only to Americanize and Christianize our foreign population but to plant the Christian flag throughout the world as the only basis of permanent peace. This can be done, I am perfectly persuaded, and I speak out of an experience of ten years' residence in Calcutta, India, which possibly gives me some excuse for speaking on this particular line tonight.

I believe the war has prepared the churches to work together to a degree they did not dream possible before the war came. The most hopeful meeting I have ever attended from the viewpoint of promoting moral and spiritual standards over the world was on the 17th day of December in New York, when about 175 representatives of our home and foreign missionary and educational agencies of the churches of North America were together for a whole day to consider how far they could go in co-operation to realize their ideals. At the end of the day's discussion there was universal agreement that the time had come when all of us must act together in the surveying of our problems at home and abroad, in the educational campaign to lead our combined constituents to grapple with their problems and in a coöperative financial campaign to secure the funds needed for education and Americanization and evangelization. A committee of twenty that was then appointed, of which I have the honor to be a member, has been spending whole days in working out the details of the plan and it has recommended to the Council of Church Boards of Education which met here yesterday and will also recommend next week to the home and foreign mission conferences of North America, meeting in New York and New Haven, that we go the whole length of coöperation even to the point of a common treasury for all our funds. This means that we shall absolutely pool and combine our interests in study-

ing our problem, in attacking it and in financing it. For, if the time has come when a League of Nations is a practicable thing, has it not also come when a League of Churches is an inevitable thing? I believe that our power to propagate the highest ideals may be multiplied many fold in these immediately constructive years just ahead of us by employing to the full the advantages of coöperation, for the scriptural principle is, "One shall chase a thousand and two shall put ten thousand to flight."

In other words, two people working together will do five times as much as those same people working separately. I have an idea that inside of the next ten years we shall see that our combined impact in the way of Christianizing America and the rest of the world will be multiplied at least five-fold. And I want to say to the leaders of educational work in this country that I believe the greatest thing we can do for the world, as well as for our own nation, is now to prepare a larger number than we ever have done before of the most capable men and women of the nation to take these places of high responsibility of leadership in the moral and spiritual realm both in our own land and among all the backward races and nations of the earth, all of which are more wide open to American influence today than to the influence of any other nation.

The strength of the nation's commerce is in its export trade, and the vitality of a nation's religion is indicated by the amount of it which it has to give away to the rest of the world.

---

VI. William H. Crawford, President of Allegheny College.

There are few finer chapters in the history of higher education in America than the one which has been written within the past two years. It was in 1914 that the Sorbonne and Grenoble, Cambridge and Oxford, the University of Toronto and McGill gave the flower of their student manhood, the best they had and all of it, to help check a haughty imperialism stalking forth to crush free government in Europe.



It was in April, 1917, when the freedom of the world seemed about to crumble, that the call came to America. On the instant our colleges began to be depopulated. There was but one theme in our halls and on our campus—the war. Why was it? America was in no immediate danger. True, the bloody sword of the enemy was raised high. But there was a wide sea to cross, and the English navy was still holding the paths of the sea. No, there was no danger that loomed up big and immediate. But the men of the colleges saw, and with clear vision, that if the doctrine that might makes right should coerce Europe it would ultimately coerce the world. Bang went books and test tubes lay broken on the floor. Why? Because a thick, black cloud, heavy and sulphurous, was rising up against the highest and most dearly cherished ideals in the life of the American people.

In the barracks and huts and dugouts of France I asked this question more than any other. "Men, what are you here for? What are you fighting for?" I never shall forget the answer of a little doughboy just out of the trenches northwest of Toul. "I am fighting," said he, "to help make this world a fit place to live in." That was before President Wilson said what he did about making the world a decent place. That doughboy had carried his American idealism straight into the trenches. In another camp I met Quentin Roosevelt. It was a sloppy dark night. He was leaving for a bombing school in the south of France to complete his training for the front. Just before the good-bye I said to him, "Lieutenant, there are large numbers of Americans who are very proud of the way the four sons of Theodore Roosevelt are acquitting themselves in this war." I shall never forget the radiancy of his face as he looked at me and said, "Well, you know, it is rather up to us to practice what father preaches." This war has proved as perhaps nothing else could that the preaching of idealism has not fallen as we supposed on dull ears. The preaching made its impression and when the crisis came, when the sacrifice had to be made, it was "fighting

to help make the world a fit place to live in," or "to practice what father preaches."

Americans have been accused of being lovers of the dollar. But who among us has cared for money in the past year and a half. Dollars have been of no consideration. The American people have been dominated by the high ideals cherished by the founders of our republic and maintained by great sons who have come after them.

The thing that most impressed me in France was that our men carried the very best that America had right up to the front lines, into the trenches, and into No Man's Land, yes and thank God they smashed through Hindenburg's lines with it to the greatest victory of sixteen centuries. It is almost too fine to talk about. It is beyond all description. If any man had told me on the 17th of April when I left Bordeaux that the things would happen that have happened between then and now, I should have thought him crazy. It wasn't that we and our allies became suddenly so much stronger than the enemy. It was because our men had an unconquerable spirit which grew out of national ideals. On one of the darkest days of the whole war, five days after the beginning of the Somme drive last March, I said to a French army officer, "Suppose the worst should happen and the Germans should get Paris, what then?" His calm answer was, "We should still have the Loire." Since right is right and God is God, it is unthinkable that such a nation should be crushed.

But the problem we face just now is not how the colleges shall be influenced by national ideals in time of war. That is done. And we are proud of the way it was done. Our problem now is the response of the colleges to national ideals in time of peace. We are to find out what there is inherent in academic life which seems to deaden us to the high and holy sentiment which is the atmosphere of highest ideals. We must somehow and by some means bring a greater and more intense incentive into the academic life of our institutions. How are we to do it?

I have no answer. A great faith will help. But first

there must be a very clear and intelligent appreciation of what our national ideals are and how they may enter into and quicken the routine of every day life. We have been talking a great deal about democracy of late. But what is democracy? How does it differ from autocracy on the one hand and Bolshevism on the other? If by some means the real meaning of our national ideals could be brought down out of the heavens and placed in the heart of the student in his freshman year, it would do much more to give edge to college life than anything else I can think of except the coming of the living Christ into the boy's heart.

The great world of college is just as much the great world of college today as it was when Horace Bushnell entered it. The trouble we have in ordinary peace times is that for most of our students college is not a world at all. It is only a forty acre lot. Who will be our pilot I do not know. But if some one will come to establish for us a real and vital relation between national ideals and our colleges, the dream of Wendell Phillips will be realized. Democracy will be strengthened and the Kingdom of God given larger place in the hearts of our students.

---

VII. Henry S. Pritchett, President of the Carnegie Foundation.

This has been an extraordinary gathering and the gentlemen who have preceded me have spoken words of high purpose and have described visions of great sweep. It is not often that I find myself in such a company of prophets. Still less often in a company so selected that five of the six who have preceded me are of Methodist origin. It remains for me to confess that I also am the son of a Methodist preacher, but I am obliged further to admit that I have degenerated into a weak-kneed Episcopalian. Lest, however, you gain the impression that our Presbyterian prophet is the only one who can quote from the Scriptures, I take as the text of my remarks this passage from Jeremiah: "Let the prophet that hath a dream tell his dream; he that hath my word, let him speak my

word faithfully; what is the chaff to the wheat, saith the Lord."

Now Jeremiah, as you may remember, was a middle of the road progressive. He took great chances in prophesying about things not sufficiently far in the future. It is always dangerous to prophesy concerning the next five or ten years. Even Moses, good prophet as he was, landed his people in the wilderness and they never escaped until Joshua, who was a practical-minded man, not so much in the lime-light as Moses, showed them the way out. I am inclined to think that the Joshuas in this world seldom get a hearing until after the Moseses have had their chance and failed.

I do not know whether the modest Joshua coming after this brilliant Moses to whom you have listened who has carried you up to the summits of idealism and has shown you all the kingdoms of the future might not at this late hour perform a useful act by reminding you that what we in this association are trying to do is not so much to run the world as to run our colleges. It has sometimes occurred to me in the last year and a half to wonder what would have happened to the colleges had they been taken over by the government and operated by a director general as were the railroads. During this period, the directors of the railroads have found that they had few rights which anybody was bound to respect. Their rights were taken over by one powerful enough to say to one, carry passengers; to another, carry freight; to another, cut down your passenger trains to the lowest limit, and to another, you may use the tracks of a rival. Suppose that a director general of colleges had in the same autocratic fashion said to college A, you are offering too many courses, you can get along with fewer; and you must combine with College B on the other side of town, and we propose to carry this co-operation and consolidation plan throughout the whole system; it is going to be a national system of colleges, not a thousand individual colleges. I do not undertake to say what would have happened. I only hope the colleges might

have fared more fortunately than the railroads, particularly in the matter of receiving such monies as were due them. But in any event, it might have given an experience which would at least have been salutary if not pleasant.

When one undertakes to prophesy it is a pretty good rule to look backward before one projects his prophecy in the future. When he does this he is obliged to admit, with each of the speakers who has preceded him, that we live in a critical time of the world. The fact is that nearly all times are critical. It is almost critical to live at all. A little more than a hundred years ago men thought they stood at the parting of the ways for civilization as we stand today. Representatives of the nations were assembled in Vienna as the representatives of the nations are this moment in Paris. The same phrases were on men's lips then that we hear today,—self determination, the rights of small nations, international justice, peace, war banished. To be sure the conception of a form of government likely to bring about these blessings was a little different. The Czar Alexander, who as you remember was the leading spirit of the Congress of Vienna, when the little republic of Genoa wanted to enter, said, "Republics are out of fashion." Today it is different, republics are very much in fashion—they seem to be making a new one every day, and yet we all know that in spite of the enormous adventure through which we have gone during the last four years, human nature has not changed. True, great human aspirations and purposes have been awakened, great ambitions have also sprung into life. Millions of men are going to be different from what they were, some of them better, some of them worse, and yet human nature and its fundamental qualities will not be essentially different from what it was two or four years ago; the same love and hate, the same selfishness and unselfishness, and worst of all, the same suspicion and readiness to ascribe wrong motives will exist between nation and nation and between individual and individual.

When it comes to making the world safe for a democ-

racy so full of human nature the result depends very much on the point of view. It is related that a college president, who has since come to an exalted position, at one period of his administration desired to carry out sweeping reforms in the college life and asked of the trustees complete authority for such a consummation. One of them argued that it might be better to persuade more and not invoke such high authority. "My dear sir," said the president simply, "how can I democratize this college unless I have complete and absolute authority?"

The fact is, brethren, all the idealism, all democracy, all freedom, comes down in its actual application to what you interpret it to be in your own practice. That which we put only into high words and splendid phrases, with shouts and wavings of handkerchiefs alone counts for little unless they are translated into deeds that touch our everyday life and our common responsibility.

For myself, I believe our outlook in the American college has a strong resemblance to our attitude toward constitutional government. If one reads the *Non Partisan Leader*, published in Minneapolis, or even if one reads so intellectual a journal as *The New Republic*, I think he comes to believe that the great outstanding fact of our national history of one hundred and thirty years is to be found in our failures, in our weaknesses, in our shortcomings; and there is no denying that these are all in evidence. Our cities are ill-governed, we have bad politics in much of our administration. At one time the railroads and those who controlled them had an undue amount of power. At this moment that power has been in large measure transferred to another group, that of labor. All these facts are witnesses to certain weaknesses, to certain mistakes in our administration of government, but these do not constitute the outstanding fact of our national history. The great outstanding fact is that in our republic men have had for one hundred and thirty years a larger measure of civil liberty than men have ever enjoyed in the history of the world. During this whole time our citizens,



whether rich or poor, have had a more equal opportunity for development, for happiness and fortune than the people of any other nation. During this whole period we have had a free parliament, a free press, a free school system, and, more significant than all, we have been governed by the will of the people itself. This is the great outstanding fact about our government, not the failures nor the weaknesses nor the shortcomings to which critics may very properly point and which we should bend our utmost endeavors to correct.

Very much the same thing may be said of our college history almost contemporaneous with the history of our country. The colleges too have had their weaknesses, their rivalries, their affectations, and yet after all human society has not yet devised an institution in which the youth may enter with larger promise for the upbuilding of his mind, his soul, and his body. No other human institution has yet been erected from whose doors young men and young women go with minds so stimulated, with ideals so high, and with characters formed on the basis of both intellectual and moral worth. True, we have failures; true, the college needs to address itself to its upbuilding morally and spiritually; yet it is still our greatest agency for the development of American leadership.

Nothing has shown this better than what the colleges have done in the war now happily ended. They threw into it generously the great body of their best manhood and womanhood, full of intelligent ability and vigor and inspiration with the spirit of self sacrifice.

And so I apprehend that the problem that the colleges have to face after this war is much like the problem they had to face before the war only with a clearer responsibility and with a more vigorous sense of duty. The college must answer afresh the question. What is a college for, and this is no other than the problem we have always had. For a college must interpret itself from generation to generation in terms of the new experience and of the new needs of the nation, of the community, of the city which it

may undertake to serve. I apprehend, therefore, that the thing that we shall get out of this war is not something coming from a changed human nature. We are not going to cease to be human beings with our weaknesses and our virtues, but we have had in this time of sacrifice such a baptism of a new experience, such a freshening of all those forces that make for true service and high idealism, that we shall answer the question, What is a college for, more effectually, more directly, in terms of American manhood and American womanhood than we have done before and that I believe to be the real problem today in the American college.

For myself, I feel that when we face this problem, What is a college for, as we must face it with each generation, we are driven necessarily to remember that primarily the college is an intellectual agency. It had its origin in the conscious need of society for an agency devoted to the intellectual training of men, and by intellectual training I mean not intellectual cleverness, but the ability to think straight. The first schoolmaster was a priest, and even if he had not been it would have soon been very clear that no intellectual agency dealing with human beings can serve its full purpose unless the ability to think straight should be coordinated in wholesome fashion with the spiritual needs of mankind on the one side, and the development of the physical life on the other. That, it seems to me, is the problem of our colleges; primarily intellectual agencies, but seeking always to relate the intellectual power to the spiritual needs of students. In proportion as we shall be able to deal effectually and sincerely with that idea of a college, in just such measure shall we serve also those great ideals which reach the whole world and the whole brotherhood of mankind.

## THE NEED OF ARCHITECTURAL INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN COLLEGES

George C. Nimmons, Representing the American Institute of Architects

The need of architectural instruction in American colleges has been felt so keenly by architects in recent years that the Illinois Chapter of the American Institute of Architects has undertaken to initiate a movement designed to bring it to the attention of the representatives of the colleges.

It should be clearly understood at the outset that this proposed architectural instruction is intended for the students generally of the colleges of this country and that it has no reference to architectural schools which are already provided for, as a rule, with very good courses of instruction for the students who intend to follow the practice of the profession of architecture.

While it is appreciated that the war has greatly interrupted the carrying on of the regular courses of instruction and in many cases has turned the colleges into military training camps for officers, necessitating changes in the curricula and organization of the administration of college affairs, still it is hoped that in the reconstruction now going on, consideration at least may be had of this subject which the architects believe is so important and of such great educative value to the students.

About a year ago, just after your last convention, a representative of the architects opened a correspondence with your president, Dr. Cowling, on the subject of architectural instruction and requested that an opportunity be given at this convention to present the subject to you. This request was very graciously granted and the architects proceeded to prepare for its presentation.

It was intended during the year to make a thorough study of the whole situation and formulate, if possible, some definite policy or plan for presentation

at this convention. But the demands of the war service upon those who had intended to carry on this movement has made it impossible to have ready at this time any completed plan of procedure to present for your consideration. In lieu of this, however, it was decided that a brief paper should be read which would undertake to show in a general way the urgency of the need for architectural instruction in American colleges from the architect's point of view.

As the strength of the appeal which this subject may make to you will undoubtedly depend primarily upon your conception of its educational value in college and its practical use in after life, the discussion will be confined to these two aspects of the subject.

To the uninitiated, institutions of learning are supposed to include in their courses of study instruction both in the arts and sciences, as the arts have always been associated at least in name with the objects for which most colleges and universities have been founded. It always seems to be assumed that the proper education of anyone would naturally include some knowledge or information of the fine arts. The assistance which an understanding of the arts would be in the acquiring of good taste and refinement, and the appreciation of and preference for the finer and better things of life, are objects which alone would seem to be sufficient recompense for the time spent in securing some knowledge and understanding of this subject.

Yet the curricula of colleges generally stop short with the art of literature. Few of them, aside from those having special art or architectural departments, provide any material instruction in the fine arts, or more especially any means of giving the students even a fair understanding of the history or principles underlying the practice of these arts. It is my understanding that about the only information as a rule imparted to the students concerning architecture is that which is more or less incidentally referred to in the various histories of the world used in the different colleges.

While there has been as yet no definite plan agreed upon by the architects defining the exact scope and character of the subject, it seems that a clear understanding of it cannot be had at this time without at least some discussion of the nature of the architectural instruction proposed.

At the beginning it would have to be recognized that architecture is too large a subject to be treated at all completely in the limited time that might be found available in the already full courses of the colleges. There is no doubt that many subjects are being urged for consideration which cannot possibly be considered, and it is only on account of the extreme need of a better understanding of architecture, particularly among the educated people, that the subject is urged so strongly for your consideration.

If the opportunity is given for the introduction of architectural instruction in colleges, the first consideration would be to select only such features and branches of the subject as would be of the greatest practical value.

It is not considered that the text books and lectures intended for strictly architectural schools would be at all adapted for the purpose in mind. These are designed for a much more extended and detailed treatment of the various branches of the subject than could possibly be included. Neither is it intended that any of the existing histories of architecture be utilized, as these do not include some of the most important topics to be presented and nearly all of them devote more space to some periods of the history of architecture than could be allowed.

The subject matter, therefore, that is intended for use in this case would have to be all newly compiled and specially prepared for the particular purpose in hand. It is probable that the best result would be secured by taking from a number of works the best treatment of the various subjects selected, and adding new material as might be required.

There are a number of works of recent publication that contain some of the best discussions of present architectural problems which would undoubtedly be considered in order to bring the work abreast of the latest thought and opinions of the day. Whether this instruction should be given entirely in the form of lectures or by the use of a text book is a matter to be determined, but the text book form recommends itself, as in that case the same treatment of the subject could be at once universally applied, while if the lecture plan were adopted as the principal means of imparting the instruction agreed upon, it would be difficult at first to secure a sufficient number of lecturers fully equipped with the means to illustrate their lectures. The study of any text book, however, should be supplemented as far as possible by such lectures as could be arranged for.

The establishment of a professorship in architecture is probably too much to be hoped for at the start, but in its absence the course could be conducted by the professor of history, with which subject it is so intimately connected.

Assuming then that the manner of providing instruction would be in the form of a text book, supplemented where possible by lectures, the character of the instruction would be specially prepared with the particular object of providing the student with just that knowledge and information of architecture which would be of the greatest benefit. There may be differences of opinion as to just what some features of that instruction should be, but it seems probable that there would be little differences of opinion as to the main features of the subject.

In order, therefore, to complete a foundation for the discussion to follow, it seems proper to predict or at least to suggest in a tentative way the outline of a course of instruction in architecture for the purpose in hand.

The course of instruction in architecture, therefore,



would consist, first, in the study of a text book specially prepared for that purpose; second, a series of illustrated lectures supplementing the text book; third, a brief course in drawing sufficient to teach the use of tee square and triangle in laying out plans and elevations to scale; fourth, a brief course of field work in which buildings under construction and buildings which are accredited to be the best types of architecture in the vicinity would be visited and observed under the guidance of some architect or some one capable of explaining the application of the important principles learned, to the actual building.

The text book no doubt would contain a treatment at least of the following subjects:

Definition of architecture, its place among the fine arts, discussion of construction and its various types, the use of materials, a brief history of architecture, the present methods of the practice of architecture, the making of drawings, letting contracts and supervision of the work, the theory of design, the use of historic styles in connection with modern buildings, a national style, the relation of the art of the industries to architecture, a brief presentation of the principles underlying landscape gardening, painting and sculpture and their use in connection with architecture.

Whether or not the above headings happen to be the most comprehensive titles for the various branches of the instruction (and it is probable that they are not), still the important thing at this time is the value of the training and instruction to the student.

This course of instruction would be laid out and designed to exercise and train the mental faculties as well as supply useful and practical knowledge for after life. The study of it would be similar in effect in some ways to that of a study of the humanities.

No better agency than a knowledge of the history of architecture can be used to fix a good perspective in the mind, of the different people of past ages. We know a nation best by its works, and if we have a general

knowledge of its buildings, we have then the best index of its character. We can compare the works of one people with another and with our own. We can interpret in a fairly accurate manner their aims, ambitions and aspirations.

One instinctively seeks to found an estimate of a person upon what he does, rather than upon what he says, when it is possible to secure the necessary information; a knowledge of architecture gives us this foundation upon which we can judge best of the character of the people of the past. Therefore it would be a great aid in the study and understanding of history.

This same ability to judge of the character of the people of the past would apply just as effectively to the present.

The reason that a building is such a good indication of the character of the man who built it or caused it to be built is the fact that its erection as a rule represents the hard earned returns of his own labor or efforts; it is something for which he must usually give up all his savings and go in debt for a part of the cost besides. Then the building also furnishes him an occasion for giving material expression to the things which he likes and admires.

The architects can testify that the designing and erection of a building is as a rule one of the most serious and earnest undertakings in a man's life. It is sure to represent the best that is in him, according to his own standards, and the character and design of the buildings are very likely to represent more the ideas and standards of taste of the owner than they are those of the architect. It is the client's building; his desires, and his ideals must be incorporated and the architect is obliged to do the best he can to make the most of them. The building therefore as a rule truly represents the character of the owner.

A student who had received some training and instruction in architecture would have acquired thereby a new and wider scope for his judgment. The character of

houses and buildings of cities must have meant little to him before; now with this instruction added to his store of knowledge he can discriminate between the good and the bad and the crude and the refined, in buildings, and therefore in the owners. He can at once make a better and more comprehensive estimate of certain qualities in an individual or of a whole community than he could have made without this knowledge. The student's character will have been improved and developed thereby to the extent of making him a better judge of the men of his day as well as of those of the past. If there is any one subject upon which the educators seem to agree as one of the important aims of education, it is upon the ability gained by education, of being able to judge men correctly. A study of architecture therefore would aid materially in this direction.

While this course of instruction would broaden the student's faculty of judgment, with respect to his fellow men, it would also at the same time develop and raise his own standards of taste. The instruction which would describe to him the finest of the world's accomplishments in building and explain to him the principles upon which their design was founded would thereby develop certain important traits of his own character in a manner that no other agency in college can now possibly do.

The average American student in intercourse with almost any of the students of Europe is positively at a disadvantage, and sometimes embarrassed on account of his ignorance of the fine arts and architecture especially. If he is called upon for any opinion or to give expression to his conception of anything that has to do with architecture, his views are likely to be crude and his judgment is not only discounted but it is likely, on account of a lack of knowledge of the subject, to create a prejudice against him. In other words, the American student appears more or less like an unpolished, rough product of education, because he is deficient in a knowledge of the fine arts, although he may have, and usually

does have, just as many of those other sterling qualities of character as his European brothers.

It is noteworthy in this connection to recall how the alumni of colleges universally regret their ignorance of architecture. With few exceptions they always appear eager to learn something from architects about it, and they are always anxious to know how they may recognize buildings and historic styles of architecture.

It is, nevertheless, a great regret that the American student does not have his rough spots polished off by an application in college of at least a little instruction in architecture so as to make him more a citizen of the world, equipped with a knowledge and understanding of those artistic things so important to the rest of the world, and so much neglected in the past in this country.

What a great benefit a little knowledge of architectural drawing would be, if acquired in college in connection with this proposed course in architecture.

A student may have learned something of drawing in his earlier days in school, but as he advances with the higher studies of college he is likely to neglect it, and to minimize the very important uses to which it may be put in after life.

The purpose of the instruction in drawing in this course would be to enable the student to lay out to scale the plans and elevations of a simple building and with the knowledge and skill so gained work out the arrangement and design of a few building problems, sufficient to fix in his mind some of the fundamental principles of architecture.

This training in the first place would tend to fix in mind for life a method of drawing by which the idea of almost any material thing could be projected on paper for examination, criticism and judgment. It would afford anyone, no matter what his profession or calling, the best possible means for studying and perfecting important problems and undertakings that were difficult to visualize sufficiently for examination.

Then in an architectural way it would undoubtedly

impress in the student's mind some useful rules of good construction, a definite idea of how properly to plan and arrange things, and some sound basis on which to found his ideas of good design and rational and beautiful ornament.

In addition to these objects, this practice in drawing might be further recommended on the basis of its educational value. There is probably no more authoritative advocate of it for this reason than the distinguished Mr. Thomas Henry Huxley, who said:

"I should make it absolutely necessary for everybody to learn to draw. You cannot begin this habit too early, and I consider that there is nothing of so great a value as the habit of drawing to secure these two desirable ends, viz., attention and accuracy."

The last subjects suggested in the course of instruction are landscape gardening, painting, and sculpture in their connection with architecture. There has been a long and discouraging struggle in this country to establish a recognition of the fine arts, yet thanks to such institutions as the Metropolitan Museum of New York, The Art Institute of Chicago, and similar institutions of other cities, the coming generations are going to have sufficient knowledge and appreciation of the fine arts to carry on this development with increasing volume and success.

There are few things in life that would add so much to the wholesome enjoyment and refinement of the hard working, industrious people of this country, as would a knowledge and ability to beautify and cultivate properly the surroundings of their own homes and improve and landscape the streets and open spaces of their towns and villages. Such things stand for contentment, much needed recreation, happiness and good citizenship, and are therefore some of the strongest influences for a higher and better life of the people.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to go into the fields of painting and sculpture and even attempt to recount the benefits that would result to the students

from a real understanding and appreciation of these two great arts. But in this proposed course of instruction there might be introduced sufficient instruction to give the students some idea of the principles underlying these arts, the objects which the various schools of art endeavored to attain, and some guidance as to how best to enjoy and appreciate works of art. If there is any one thing which the people of this country need in their education and training, especially now since they have established a new relationship and a new comradeship with those people abroad who hold the arts in such high esteem, it is that they should round out and complete their education with at least some knowledge and understanding of the fine arts.

Having dwelt to this length upon the discussion of the nature and value of architectural instruction in college, the balance of the time for this brief presentation can probably be spent best in following the student after graduation and tracing the effect of this instruction upon his career in after life.

After he has entered upon his career in life, his first serious direct contact with architecture will probably be the building of his own home. Its plan and arrangement will be responsible to an important degree for the easy running of his household. The effect of its design and surroundings will be those silent and yet potent influences in crystallizing his own ideals and standards of taste and refinement and in creating and moulding those of his children.

As he progresses in life and begins to take part in constructive enterprises where building improvements are involved, his choice and decision on the arrangement and design of important buildings will naturally be sought. At this time his decisions and the results of his knowledge of buildings and architecture will increase in importance, because he will not only fix the character of his own buildings, but that of public buildings as well.

If his career lies in the field of business, then he may



have to do with large and important commercial and industrial buildings. His judgment will have to be passed upon buildings whose plan and design may have much to do with the success of the business to be carried on. The army of employes engaged in the industries, together with their families, now constitute a third of the entire population of this country. Provision for housing them in wholesome and satisfying quarters is today one of the important problems of national concern. The workshops for the men, in order that business may meet competition and that wages sufficient for a decent living may be paid, must be models of efficiency and at the same time provide completely for the welfare of the employes. All these great questions are connected intimately with the plans and designs of buildings. Architects and engineers may draw these plans but their character and their final approval in the last analysis comes down to those in control of the business and their knowledge of building and architecture must guide them in their final decision.

Our industries need every help and encouragement they can get in these times of reconstruction. One of the greatest handicaps to some of the American industries in meeting foreign competition in the past has been the relatively poor appearance and design of some of our products as compared with those of Europe. American designers of industrial products often do not seem to understand the first principle of good design, neither do they understand as a rule the use of color and its combinations. Their products are often coarse, crude, and ugly as compared with foreign ones. The trouble is that they have never had any knowledge of architecture. Architecture is the mother art from which the ideas for construction, ornamentation and design of industrial products are taken. Some of the awful things of industry would never have appeared in the market if the industrial designer had only understood that one single basic principle of architecture, viz., that good design and ornamentation can only grow out of a logical development of

construction, fashioned so as to meet the functions for which the thing was created. If a single instance were to be mentioned to exemplify the above statements there is probably no product of the manufacturing industries of this country that deserves this distinction so much as the American stove, and that variety so properly named the base burner. This product which is made up in its design of the most hideous gegaws and jimcracks, polished and silvered so as to vainly pronounce itself to the eye, is a creation which would seem to come from the lowest savage. As an example of design it might very properly be ascribed to the heathen as an altar erected after their own fashion to glorify some strange and hideous god. The tragedy of the whole matter is that this is the fireside of thousands of American families, who have to sit around it through the long winter months. Their children growing up have this thing in their homes to pervert their standards of taste and degrade their ideas of design and ornament.

Such things absolutely never could have been created, or never would have been bought, if the people generally had received some instruction in architecture. As the tendencies of a large proportion of American people are toward the industries and as a great many of them so engaged look to the colleges to train and educate their children to carry on their business, the need for architectural instruction in college so far as the industries are concerned is very pronounced.

The January Bulletin of the Art Institute of Chicago has very fittingly summarized this aspect of the industrial situation in the following words:

"A great industrial nation without an industrial art can after all be great in bulk only. When practically every industrial and commercial nation in the world excepting ours has long seen the light on this subject, it would be a perilous thing to venture forth with our wares upon the seven seas without a new reckoning."

If the student elects to follow any of the professions as his life work, then this instruction in architecture will be equally important. If he is a lawyer and his practice

is with corporations or estates, much of his work will have to do with buildings and architecture. If he is a physician his practice will from the first be closely connected with hospitals. If he is a teacher or professor, the college buildings will become intimately associated with his work; and if he chooses the ministry as his calling, the architecture of churches will at once become a subject of the greatest importance.

As the student progresses in life and succeeds in taking his place in the control and direction of affairs, he sooner or later will be called upon to assist in determining and approving the plan and design of public buildings, and it will be his judgment and his standards of excellence and right planning that will determine the character of the architecture of his community.

If the student in his advancement is afforded the advantage of travel and study abroad, his deficiency in a knowledge of architecture will be felt all the more keenly. He who doesn't know one architectural style from another will probably fly to the rescue of Baedeker on the way over, in his haste to prepare for a first acquaintance with the world's great masterpieces of art.

It is a strange and unaccountable fact that these great works of art which the rest of the world prizes and appreciates so highly should arouse so comparatively little interest in this country, and when it is considered that these are the finest and greatest works of man in the building art, it is more surprising that the institutions of learning in this country do not teach at least enough architecture for the traveler to enjoy and appreciate them. It would seem that the proper education of a man was not complete without such instruction.

While this plea for architectural instruction may be founded somewhat on criticism of omissions in the present courses of college instruction, as well as on the benefits to be gained, still the writer is not unmindful of that purpose of college education which is the greatest of all, viz., the designing and the building of the highest form of Christian character. And it is most gratifying to know that in spite of the effects of the

war, the French and British Educational Commissioners who have just visited this city are entirely in accord with this high ideal as indicated by their public utterances. Sir Henry Alexander Miers, a distinguished member of the British Commission, speaking at the University Club of this city concerning the war and the aims of education, said, "The real objects of education are truth, honesty and justice."

Even if the American colleges accomplish nothing beyond the cultural and moral training of the students, no one could properly have anything but praise for the good which they would do; yet it is recognized that it is essential for the sake of students and for the support from the people of the country that a college education must, without losing sight of its main object, include in its training and instruction as much as possible of that which would be of the greatest practical value in life after graduation from college. Certainly this proposed architectural instruction has much that would be of great value in that way as well as a strong cultural and refining influence in an educational way.

The profession of architecture needs your support and the whole country needs your assistance so as to abolish this ignorance among the people of the most useful and important of the fine arts. Our architecture cannot advance or improve without raising the standards of the people with respect to it. The architects and the architectural schools are doing all they can to educate the coming architects, but their work will be limited and held back from advancement unless their future clients, who are your students, are given an understanding and appreciation of architecture.

The client must be prepared in this way to co-operate with the architect in order to create a better architecture and one that really has roots or connection with the soil of this country.

No period of architecture has ever achieved greatness or distinction without the discriminating intelligent appreciation and support of the people of its time, and if we are ever to have a national style of architecture

indigenous to our soil we must have your support. As it is, we have never been able to advance far in the development of any architecture of our own, we have never been able to improve materially and in some ways not even equal the architecture of the past. We have the advantage which other nations of the past did not have in our photography and books with their illustrations. What we want now is to begin where they left off and progress. We want to get something more significant of ourselves into our buildings, we want to see the Greek fret, the scanthus and lion's head of Imperial Rome, or the fleur de lis of France, or such ornaments which have no national significance for us, give way to our golden rod and our wild flowers, our buffalo head, our Indian lore and all those reminders of our own national existence, which is full of opportunities, and we want to see our wonderful new steel skeleton and our reinforced concrete constructions clothed with an architecture American in spirit, representative of our institutions and worthy to stand as a fitting record and monument of our achievements for the people of the future.

America has already startled and amazed the world by the size and stupendous proportions and cost of our accomplishments, and the wonderful rapidity with which we accomplish our results. Now, let us in harmony with those higher ideals that we hope will come out of the war, let us forget size and bigness, and really try earnestly for quality and beauty. And our success, I trust you will all realize, is going to depend primarily upon you, the educators of our people.

In conclusion, I wish to state that if your Association will give consideration to this matter, and if you should decide to co-operate with the architects in this great work, which will take time and no small effort to accomplish, the Illinois Chapter of the American Institute of Architects is at your service and the American Institute of Architects at large has a national committee on education which is eager and would be glad to take up this work with any representative or committee which you might appoint.

### COLLEGE FINANCIAL STATEMENTS

Trevor Arnett, Auditor, University of Chicago

College financial reports are made for three general classes: First, for the administrative officers and heads of departments; second, for trustees, regents, and governmental agencies; and third, for the alumni and public. The reports which are made for administrative officers and for heads of departments are necessarily more restricted in their scope than the reports that are made for the other classes I have mentioned. They necessarily have to do with certain particular phases of college finance. The president of the university or of the college may be desirous of learning how a certain department of the institution is progressing. Other administrative officers may wish to find out in what condition their particular departments are. They may be departments that have just been inaugurated, or there may be certain circumstances connected with their development which they are particularly anxious to know about.

The head of the department is not generally interested in reports which have to do with the whole financial situation of the college, but only in those which deal with the financial situation of the department for which he is responsible. Consequently, reports for the head of the department have primarily to do with the appropriations for his department, the expenditures that are made in connection with those appropriations, and the amount of money available for future expenses. I find in looking over college financial statements and financial plans in operation that there is not enough attention paid to the status of the appropriation of the individual department. Perhaps in the small college this is not of so much significance as it is in a larger institution, but I feel strongly that the head of a department having a certain amount of money to expend for the uses of his department should be informed and kept informed at all times of the progress of the ex-



penditures and the amount available for future expenditures. I find that very frequently a statement is made of the actual expenditures to date without reference to any outstanding orders or obligations that have been entered into for future expenditures. Any system of reports which does not include, in addition to the expenditures already made, a statement of the expenditures that have been incurred or obligations entered into which will cause expenditures, is incomplete and does not give the head of the department sufficient knowledge of the situation.

A very simple plan may be used for carrying out this suggestion. Each department should be required to make an order upon the treasurer of the college, or the administrative officer to whom that particular duty is assigned, before an expenditure is incurred. A record of these orders should be made as they come in, charging against the appropriation the estimate of the cost, and when the bills are paid marking them off and at the end of each month making a statement of the outstanding orders. The amount of bills paid plus the outstanding orders deducted from the amount of the appropriation, gives the balance available for further expenditures and furnishes the head of the department all the information necessary for a correct understanding of the accounts of his department.

There are two or three very good devices that have been put into effect quite recently for thus informing the head of the department of the status of his appropriation. One of them is to send a photographic copy of the ledger account in the main office to the head of each department. This may not be feasible in a small institution. It is a very satisfactory scheme, because it does away with any possibility of error in transcription and it shows each item in the account.

A different type of report is called for in the case of the second class of persons for whom financial reports are made—the trustees or directors of the college. The trustees of an institution wish to know not only the

financial condition of any one department, but also the financial condition of the institution as a whole. Consequently, reports which are made to them should embrace both the departmental accounts and those of the entire institution. I think, too, that statements have not been furnished frequently enough to the trustees. In many instances I find it is not the custom to make many financial reports as the year progresses. Maybe one is made at the end of the first six months, and again at the end of the year when a complete statement of the whole financial situation and the condition of the college at the close of the year is sent to the Board of Trustees. I think that is not frequent enough. The trustees should be constantly informed just what the situation at the college is. If it is desirable that the trustees be interested in the financial operation and in the financial situation it is essential that they be informed fully and frequently of what is going on. For that reason, if it is not feasible to make reports monthly, and I think in most places it would be feasible to do so, reports should be made at least every quarter, and a careful resume of the whole financial situation and financial progress during that period should be included with the reports.

The reports should be complete, should be clear, and should be concise. You will see that some of those things naturally react on each other. Sometimes it is thought that in order to make a report clear it should be voluminous. Such is not at all the case. A financial report can be very clear and concise, and probably by a little study it will be seen that conciseness and clearness go hand in hand.

Reports, therefore, should be made frequently and sent to the trustees with an accompanying statement from the accounting officer, or whoever's duty it is to make the reports, calling attention to any significant features in the financial operations which have occurred during the period for which the reports are made. Trustees of institutions are usually busy men, occupied with interests other than those of the college. Because of

this it is important that reports should be so made that they will be readily understood. Now, of course, the officers who make out the reports are much better acquainted with the details than the trustees can be expected to be. Therefore, it is advisable that they should send a letter of explanation to the Board of Trustees with the reports calling attention to features of interest which have developed during that period. The letter should also give in a brief way a resume of the financial situation.

To speak about the reports themselves: The first part should be the balance sheet. Any report which does not include a balance sheet is not complete because the balance sheet is needed to show the financial situation of the institution at that particular time. The balance sheet should not be full of detail. It should describe under a few general headings the financial situation. In addition to the balance sheet, which gives a picture of the financial situation, a statement should be made of the progress of the budget receipts and expenditures for that year. This is a matter of great importance to the trustees. Where a budget system is in operation, and the budget is made on the theory that the amount apportioned to the departments and divisions of the college shall not exceed the amount of available income, and care is taken to see that this theory is carried out in the actual expenditures during the year, there can of course be no deficit. But in order to bring about this result, frequent reports should be made showing the pro rata of receipts and expenditures to date compared with the actual results for the period. If the comparisons show an unfavorable state of affairs an explanation should be given as to whether the unfavorable state will continue during the year or whether it is dependent upon some particular circumstance which may be modified or changed before the end of the year. If, in addition to making the statement of pro rata receipts and expenditures, at the same time a statement were made of the actual receipts and expenditures for the

year before for the corresponding period the trustees would get a very good idea of just what was happening.

In addition to sending a statement of the income and expenditures, and keeping the trustees informed of what the probabilities are of the outcome at the end of the year, it is a good thing to acquaint the trustees with the conditions of gifts which have been given to the institution for endowment and special purposes, particularly those gifts which have been given on certain conditions. Trustees change from time to time, and since the history of the college in many instances runs back for many years, it is almost impossible for them to be fully informed of all the circumstances of every trust fund which the college has.

A very simple plan has been put into operation in some institutions for informing the trustees of these gifts and their conditions. They must know the conditions of gifts in order to see that the conditions are carried out in the manner prescribed. But if there is put before them at one time the conditions of all the special gifts it is quite likely that they would not fully understand or remember them. The plan which has been put in very successful operation is to present once a month to the Board of Trustees a statement of one fund, giving a complete history of that fund, and a statement of the way in which the fund's conditions are being executed. The statement is sent to each member of the board and it runs something like this: First, it gives the date on which the gift was made. Next, it recites the conditions of the gift, quoted from the original. Then it states the time when the money, security, or property which was donated was received, with a statement of any changes that have been made in those securities or property up to date. Finally, it describes the way in which the conditions have been fulfilled, giving specific reference by name to the beneficiary, or otherwise. By furnishing such a report to the Board of Trustees monthly it is possible for them to become informed gradually on all matters which they should know regarding special funds.

There is another very good point in connection with this system: You can very readily see that if the administrative officers have to present to the Board of Trustees every month a statement of how the conditions of any gift have been met and fulfilled, there is a great probability that those conditions will be scrupulously observed, and there will be no possibility that a gift given for one purpose will by devious means be used for some other purpose, because it must be publicly explained and put down in black and white just what the disposition has been, and the chances are good that the original conditions will be exactly carried out.

At the end of the year, of course, a statement should be made to the Board of Trustees giving a full history of the financial operations for the year, the condition of the institution at the end of the year, the final outcome of the budget, the surplus or the deficit, whichever it happens to be, the plans that have been made for taking care of the deficit, and recommendations with regard to the disposition of the surplus if the college has been fortunate enough to create one. While the statements which have been made during the progress of the year are complete for certain parts of the year, the annual reports should contain the full detail of the years' operations, and with it an explanatory statement should be made which should give in a way which anyone can readily understand a resume of the financial history that the institution has made. That statement should start out something like this: At the close of the year it will be seen that the assets of the college are thus and so, and that during the year these assets have been increased by the following items: These assets are due to gifts of friends for this purpose, that purpose, or the other purpose. It will then state what the total endowment of the college is and what the total investments are, and it will show whether the investments and cash on hand equal the endowments. It will show what amount has been invested in plant and equipment; whether they are carried on the books at cost, or whether they have been

inflated or depreciated; whatever has been the fact, that report should state.

In addition to giving a report as to the outcome of the budget, it should call attention to any other special circumstances that have happened during the year. For example, if the dining hall operation has been unfortunate and resulted badly, a statement should be made of the reasons for it, if they were good and sufficient reasons. In any event the trustees should not have put before them a set of financial statements without any explanation whatever. If such a method of financial reporting were followed it would be found that the trustees would take much greater interest in the institution and take a much greater responsibility for the financial outcome at the close of the year; whereas, if they are informed after the close of the year that the year had been a rather unfortunate one for the college and it had a deficit of \$15,000, it is pretty hard to expect the trustees to make any effort then to cure what might have been prevented had they known of the matter before.

Perhaps I might mention one other class for whom reports are made, and that is governmental agencies. As you all know, the government calls upon institutions for financial reports once a year, or perhaps once in two years, asking certain specific questions with regard to the institution. In order to answer the questions the books of the institution should be kept in such a way that the answers may be made without a great deal of trouble. In fact, the questions are rather simple, and if the books have been kept in any systematic way it is not a difficult thing to answer them.

Now with regard to the third class of persons for whom college financial reports are made—the public and alumni—which I take it is the class for which Dr. Cowling has made his very useful and very complete report of the Efficient College. I suppose we may just as well not flatter ourselves that college financial reports are read very widely by the public. The reading public of a college report is pretty limited, particularly if it is a



financial report, and I think that is due in some measure to the kind of a financial report that has been put out. If the report were arranged in a clear, concise, and interesting manner, I think it would be much more widely read than it is at the present time. This report for this class should also show just what has happened at the institution, and, in a certain measure, should furnish the same sort of information that has been presented to the trustees except that perhaps a certain amount of detail which the trustees should know could properly be left out. In fact, it could be very much better left out if it makes the reports too voluminous, because the possibility of their being read is increased in just that proportion. Therefore, the reports that are made for the public should be as concise, definite, and complete as possible. They should, however, be constructed in a way that anybody who understands anything at all about accounting could easily understand them and get a full knowledge of the situation of the college.

In these reports the key to the whole situation is the balance sheet. It should be arranged in such a way that a person taking up the report could learn the things easily that he wants to know about the college. If it is an endowed college he will want to know its endowments. The next question he will ask is—"What has become of those endowments? Have they been used properly? Are they represented by good assets, and if so, what kind of assets are they?" In other words, there should be shown very clearly on the balance sheet the relation between the total of the endowment funds and the disposition of those endowment funds. I take it if you were to pick up at random fifty college reports you would find that probably forty-five would show the subject in such a way that you could not find out what had become of their endowment funds. The other five would probably show clearly what had happened to the endowment funds and their present condition. The next item which should appear in the balance sheet should be the amount of the plant, buildings, and equipment. Accord-

ing to eastern tradition, the plant and equipment are not shown on the books, but in the west they are. I think, myself, that it is a good plan to do so because it shows the total assets of the institution. On the opposite side of the balance sheet the amount of money that has been given to the plant, together with the surplus income or other funds used for the purpose, should be indicated. This would comprise the second section of the balance sheet.

The third section would include the current assets and liabilities classified under headings that usually appear in commercial balance sheets, what are called the receivables and payables. Any business man knows perfectly well what you mean by receivables and payables. Now, by looking at the receivables and the amount of the payables anyone can find out whether the college is in a healthy condition with regard to the payment of those obligations; that is, whether the receivables are of a liquid character so that they can be readily converted and used for the payment of the debts. Probably in some instances it may be found that there are more payables than there are receivables, the difference being accounted for by a deficit or accumulated deficits. Of course, we all know that deficits are not available for the payment of debts, and consequently a statement of current assets and liabilities in which the excess of liabilities is balanced on the other side by deficits is not a very healthy condition. But whatever the institution's condition is, it should be shown clearly on the balance sheet. From such a balance sheet the reader gets a picture quickly of the financial situation of the institution. But there should be references in the balance sheet to other tables, giving details. The public interested, or alumni interested in the college necessarily want to know what Dr. Cowling calls the richness of the feast. What he means by this is, how much does the college offer to the students who come to the institution from the point of view of adequate equipment and adequate instruction. Therefore, the report should show as clearly as possible what

the amount paid for instruction has been, and what the other costs of operation have been, and the relation between the number of students and the number of faculty. Certain other special features may be included. For example, one might want to know with regard to the instruction, the composition of the faculty, how many professors there were, how many assistant professors, how many instructors, how many assistants, and so forth. So that if, in addition to making a statement of the amount paid for instruction, there was a further statement in the letter or in the report giving the classification of the instructors according to ranks, and also a statement of the amount received from students classified according to the kind of students, the relation of the size of the faculty to the number of students would be seen. A good form for showing the latter is to give first the departments of the college as a whole, with the number of students in each department, the amount of tuition each kind of student should pay, the number of students not paying tuition, the number of students paying tuition, the amount of penalties or rebates that were made, and the net amount received.

It will be found that nearly all printed financial reports contain about four different things: First, the balance sheet, of which I have already spoken; second, a statement of income and expenditures. The statement of income and expenditures can be made very complete, or it can be made very brief, but there are certain things which every one wishes to know with regard to it: First, with regard to the income, one wants to know what the total amount received from students was, what proportion that was of the total income of the institution; second, what amount was received from endowment funds, and what proportion that was of the entire income; third, what was furnished by gifts and what proportion that was of the entire institution's income; fourth, what was received from sales, or from items of that kind, and what its proportion of the total was; and fifth, from any other sources which are not included in the above items. The

classes of income just mentioned apply to all colleges and universities and institutions of learning of every size. Any amount of subdivision of these classes may be made, but one table in the report should give information in totals for the five classes described.

Next, with regard to the expenditures: One wants to know first what the total was, then the amount spent for instruction, what proportion that was of the total expenditures for the year, for we know when we compare the reports of Carleton College with those of Knox College, and those of Knox College with those of some other college, that if given the number of students, the amount paid for instruction, and the proportion the cost of instruction was of the total expenditures of the budget, we get a very good idea of whether the student is getting all that is coming to him in that particular institution, or whether the student is being exploited.

In addition to learning what the total amount paid for instruction was, it is necessary to know how much was spent for administration and general expenses. The tendency may be for expenses of administration to outrun some of the other expenses.

Another division which it is essential to have knowledge of is that of the expenditures for maintenance of buildings and grounds. One would also like to know how much money was spent for scholarships and fellowships, if there were any fellowships; the amount spent for the equipment expenses of laboratories; the amount spent for the equipment of libraries and other things, which may not fall into one of the classes enumerated.

A classification of the income and expenses for the year in these divisions is very illuminating and gives the outsider who may not be particularly interested in details, such as how the expenditures in the department of botany compared with those in the department of chemistry, all the information that he wants to know with regard to the financial progress of the college.

There is no limit, of course, to the number of statistical tables that can be given in a college report, but it is better

to confine them to the subjects in which we think the public or the alumni are interested.

Another feature of special interest is the amount received from gifts during the year, and a very complete statement of gifts received should be included in every annual report, giving not only the name and the amount, but the purpose for which the gift was made, and perhaps some reference to any previous gift that has been given by that donor. Certainly a statement should be made of every gift received during the year and the purpose for which the gift was intended. The statement should be divided into two parts: First, those containing gifts for capital purposes, that is, for purposes which add to the assets or permanent property of the institution, and second, those containing gifts for current purposes.

With such a statement before one, and a statement showing the changes in the permanent assets for the year one can see whether there has been diminution in the permanent assets or whether the gifts have added to the college wealth. It is a very interesting thing that some institutions can be given permanent assets and yet the effect is that instead of increasing the assets they seem to diminish them for some curious reason.

But I think even with regard to a public report made for the alumni and friends of the institution that it is essential that it consist of something besides annual tables. A statement from the president or treasurer, or someone familiar with the financial situation, calling attention in an easy manner to what has happened, and explaining the tables that appear in the report is, I think, of great help and interest to the public, and I find that a great many people read a report if at the beginning there is a brief statement such as I have mentioned, and if such a one were given at the beginning of every financial report intended for the public I am quite sure that the constituency reading such report would be greatly augmented.

I do not know, Mr. Chairman, whether you want me to speak of the making of a budget in connection with the financial reports, or only of the public financial report.

But, in connection with the financial reports of an institution, the making of the budget and its arrangement is a matter of great importance, for when you come to compare the operation of one institution with that of another you find that the arrangement in the financial report is usually unique and does not follow that used in any other report. There has been a great deal of work done recently on the unification and the classification of college reports. The Carnegie Foundation, as you know, did good work in that particular matter by sending out to all colleges and institutions a form of annual report. That form has been very stimulating and has helped people to consider the matter, and, while they have not always adopted it, they have been able to see the suitability of a standard form for financial reports.

In making up the statement of income and expenditures, and particularly the statement of expenditures, there are three main divisions into which the operating expenses of an institution, no matter how large it is, fall. They are, first, the division for educational expenditures; second, that for administrative expenditures; and finally, the one for the expenditures for the operation of the plant.

If a general classification therefore were made, first into those three divisions, classifying under educational expenditures all those that pertain directly to educational work (of course all the work of the college or university pertains entirely to educational work, although some of it not so directly as others); second, making a group of all the administrative expenses; and third, a group of the expenditures on the plant, we get a basis of comparison for the budgets of all educational institutions.

Now with regard to administrative expenses: The administrative officers, such as the president and treasurer, whose work covers all departments of the institution, are engaged in supervising not only educational work, but also the operation of the plant, the endowment funds, the collection of endowment revenue, and the investment of endowment funds. Therefore, the administrative expenses, if they are to be divided on a basis applicable to all institutions,



should be subdivided into three classes: First, into a class including those which have to do with what I call the corporation welfare, that is, the expenses which are incurred on account of taking care of funds, looking after the investments, which in themselves have nothing at all to do with the educational expense; second, into a class for those administrative expenditures which have to do with the educational work—for example, paying of the salaries of the faculty, collecting of the laboratory and tuition fees, buying of books and equipment for the departments, and such administrative expenditures for the educational division; third, a class for the expenditures of administration which the officers are put to in connection with the supervision of the plant.

If such a division were made, one would have at the end of the year the cost of administration for educational work, for corporation welfare, and for the physical plant. The portion relating to the operation of the plant could be added to the direct expenses for the physical plant, and those for the educational division could be added to the educational expenditures; but those of the corporation welfare—that is, looking after the endowment funds, etc., should not be added to the budget, but should be deducted from the gross income from investments, for if the care of endowment funds is not charged to the administration of the institution, but charged to the income on the fund, you will have a basis of comparing the budget expenditures of one institution with those of another regardless of the size of their endowment funds, for, after all, the income which an institution uses is the net and not the gross income. Therefore, if amounts expended in caring for the endowment funds were charged to the gross income, and the net amount only carried into the budget, the expenditures of every college would be on the same basis, whether its income came from students, from the state, or from gifts. In this way, the amount of money expended on the care of the securities would not be mixed up with and considered a part of the educational expenditures. And, in finding out the cost of the education per capita in any college you would get the net figure at once instead of an inflated figure.

One very good feature of President Cowlings' committee's report is the fact that it undertakes to separate the gross from the net. It carries over the net figures instead of the gross so that wherever you get a cost it is not one from which you have to deduct something taken from the other side of the report, and you can see at once what the contribution of that item was to the income, or what the actual expenses were in connection with the service or the commodity rendered.

If some such plan as that were adopted in budget classification, and the classification were printed in the annual report it would be possible for anyone interested in the institution to see whether it was as well managed as others, or whether it was an advisable one to patronize from the point of view of sending students.

The President: Are there any questions that you would like to ask Mr. Arnett?

Question: In the report for the public, Mr. Arnett, would you give the detailed investments; not only the total amount of bonds, mortgages, and so on, but each kind of security?

Mr. Arnett: Personally, I should not, but a very great many people think it is a very good thing to do. I think the total investments should be given and their classification—how much is in real estate, and so forth—but to print a list of real estate mortgages, with the names of John Smith, John Jones, and so forth, is not particularly illuminating. However, if the securities are well known a person can form his own opinion as to their value, and in that case a list might be useful. Of course the real test of the value of a security is whether it is paying an income right along, year after year, and finally the principal.

Question: How would you handle the matter of depreciation in your balance sheet? For instance, your plant is worth \$500,000, \$450,000 being the amount of gifts expended, and that is the balance sheet before the depreciation is charged off. Then say \$10,000 depreciation is charged off of the assets, how would you handle it on the liability side?

Mr. Arnett:—It all depends upon whether you charge off depreciation by setting aside from your income the \$10,000. If you really provide out of your income the \$10,000, you would charge it against your expenditures. But that, so far as I know, is what no college does in providing for depreciation. Depreciation charged now is purely a book entry and no provision is made to set up a fund from income to care for depreciation. In a commercial concern, such is not the case. When a commercial concern charges depreciation it charges it against the earnings of the year in order to provide for the capital used up. But that is not the theory on which colleges are founded or run. When a certain amount of money is given for a building it is given with the expectation that when that building is worn out there will be another friend who will give another building. Consequently, there is no obligation on the part of the college to set up out of its earnings a depreciation fund for that building. If it is not set up out of your earnings, it is purely a book entry and is put into effect by charging off your building account and diminishing the capital on the other side.

As to the question of setting up on the books a replacement fund, that might obviate the very thing that you may want the public to do, for if you were to set up a replacement fund and carry it in the balance sheet you would have no reason whatever for asking the public to give you another building to replace the present one.

Question: During the last few years, Mr. Arnett, there has been a very great increase in the price of material for buildings. Would you show an appreciation in the value of your buildings and grounds in your assets from year to year?

Mr. Arnett: I think it is a good plan to carry the buildings and grounds and plant at cost on the books of the institution, and not appreciate them or depreciate them. If you want to show that you think your buildings are worth more than you put them at in the balance sheet, you can make a note to that effect. But to appreciate buildings, and thus add to your capital, is not a very good plan.

Question: Isn't it sometimes necessary in connection with insurance?

Mr. Arnett: No. It may be or may not be. If you do not carry them at cost the insurance people have methods of finding out what your buildings cost—that is, they can look up your original records. It doesn't make any difference whether you put a building on your balance sheet as worth \$50,000; if they ask you to show what it cost they get the cost figures. So it doesn't help from that point of view. Neither does it help any in taxation. If the buildings and equipment are put on at cost, that is at least a figure which everybody can hang on to and learn what the institution put in its buildings and equipment. If it is thought wise to put in the present value, it could be placed in a parallel column. Sometimes property is appreciated for the purpose of swallowing up the loss of endowment, or something of that kind, which, of course, is reprehensible, as we all know.

The President: Don't you think, Mr. Arnett, that it would be a wise thing to encourage colleges as a matter of policy to establish replacement funds? I have come to be a good deal interested in that particular question. You said a moment ago that you thought commercial undertakings were not parallel with educational enterprises with respect to that matter, and that perhaps we had a better appeal if we had nothing on our books to show for it. But I believe it would be better to face the actual situation every year.

It is a matter of fact that at the close of every year you have taken off a slice of your plant. That has actually been used in connection with the education of that group of students that year. It is a part of your actual cost. It seems to me that an institution should hold itself to the responsibility of replacing that promptly at the end of the year. No institution does it, with the exception of one or two that I know of that have building replacement funds. Certain institutions do it with regard to particular buildings.

Mr. Arnett: The commercial buildings, that may be, but not the college buildings.

The President: I have a feeling that no institution ought to allow itself to depreciate any more with regard to its plant than with regard to its endowment fund. You have just made the statement that it is reprehensible to expand building values to close the year. I have a good deal the same feeling about the buildings, and I believe that the practical method and device to help out that point is the establishment of what Mr. Arnett has called these replacement funds. Now, if you listed in accordance with the annual statement all current expenses, of course, it doesn't help the commercial situation to list on the side of receipts the items charged off. On the other hand, if you will hold yourself responsible for securing an annual income that will provide for that depreciation, of course, it means that year after year the college is greatly strengthened financially. I know a great many institutions that are listing their buildings at cost price on an average of fifteen or twenty years ago that do not begin to have the advantages that the students in those institutions had twenty years ago so far as advantages in equipment and buildings are concerned.

Now, if you had a replacement fund all that you charged off from the buildings you would add to the replacement fund; and the institution receiving any new gifts, it would represent a substantial net increase in their total assets.

Mr. Arnett: I think, Mr. Chairman, it all depends on the policy adopted. If the replacement fund is established it should be a real replacement fund; that is, the money should come out of the income. Now that means that in many institutions there would be not very much left for the work of the college. If the policy of the institution is to go on and perpetuate itself on its present basis, without any further appeal for replacement of its property, then the plan spoken of by Dr. Cowling is the plan to follow. because you are assured at the end of the period of having a fund sufficient to replace buildings. But if that is not

your plan, then it probably is not wise to make what seems to be a motion that does not lead you anywhere. The alternative would be to put in the statement, first, the cost, and second, a statement of what you think the buildings are worth at that time, which would care for President Cowling's idea.

We all know what a sinking fund is. Someone has said that a sinking fund was a fund that usually sank out of sight when you wanted it, and that is what happens to a great many of such funds, for sinking funds have been known to be used for some other emergency and when the time came they were not available for the purpose for which they were established. A replacement fund, if created, should be very carefully administered and rigidly held for its special object.



## INSURANCE AND ANNUITIES FOR COLLEGE TEACHERS

Henry S. Pritchett, President of Carnegie Foundation.

By one mishap or another I have been prevented in the past from meeting this Association. I venture to express my pleasure in the proceedings of this conference, in the interesting quality of the papers presented, and the real questions in education with which you are dealing. The discussions in this body have been hearty and earnest, giving a freshness to this gathering such as one finds in few educational meetings.

I have been interested in the discussions touching the scope and limitations of the college curriculum. In the language of Terence no field of knowledge can be foreign to the interest of the intelligent human being, but the college must limit itself to those fields which it can cover in a fruitful and wholesome fashion. It is better to set before the student a simple and wholesome meal than a bill of fare so ambitious as to lose the quality of sincerity and thoroughness which he so much needs.

I come now to the purpose of my talk,—to describe briefly the agency for effecting the college teacher's protection against the hazards of life incident to a small salary, the protection that it is proposed to accomplish through the policies of the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association recently incorporated. Let me touch also briefly on the process through which the Carnegie Foundation has come to the conclusions expressed in practical form in the policies of the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association.

When the Carnegie Foundation was incorporated in the spring of 1906, there was no conception of a pension plan in the minds of Mr. Carnegie and his trustees, except that of the free payment of pensions to as many teachers as the income of the endowment would provide. In making such payments, the trustees had clearly recognized that such pensions or allowances must be stipendiary in charac-

ter, that is to say, they must have some fair relation to the active salary. In general, the rules aimed to provide an old age pension equal to approximately sixty per cent. of the active pay during the last five years of service. The rules were so framed that this proportion was about sixty per cent. for the average pay of the full professor; being larger than sixty per cent. for smaller salaries and less than sixty per cent. for larger ones. Thus a man retiring at sixty-five on a salary of \$1,200 received a retiring allowance of \$1,000; one retiring on a \$3,000 salary a \$1,900 allowance, while one retiring on a \$6,000 salary received an allowance of \$3,400. The maximum allowance granted was \$4,000.

The trustees likewise adopted as a general policy the conferring of retiring allowances through designated colleges and universities. No other plan was possible if the teacher was to receive his allowance under definite rules, while at the same time the number of teachers to whom pensions could be given was necessarily limited. The system of retiring allowances, therefore, set up by the trustees, in accordance with the general desire of the founder, was a noncontributory pension, established in a limited number of colleges and universities, under rules fixed by the trustees, and subject to modification as time and experience might indicate.

Within a very short time the defects of this plan began to show themselves. The establishment of a privilege so valuable as a free pension, when restricted to a limited number of institutions, involved discriminations between institutions which became more and more difficult as time passed.

The working of the rules themselves began to show results not anticipated. Mr. Carnegie had in mind the offer of a pension to the teacher grown old in the service. To the old teacher, such a privilege coming unexpectedly at the end of long and faithful work was a gracious and friendly service. The situation was entirely different when the promise of a pension was held before the eyes of the

man who was twenty, thirty or forty years away from retirement. Within a few years, both Mr. Carnegie and the trustees began to have serious doubts of the wisdom of any system of pensions provided entirely without the co-operation of the beneficiary, whether he were a teacher, a government employe, or an industrial worker.

There was only one thing which right-minded and courageous men could do under such circumstances, and that was to make a thorough study of the whole subject and, after full knowledge, to go forward to a constructive and permanent solution of the problem of teachers' pensions.

As a preliminary, the literature of the world bearing on such questions was brought together and discussed. The reports of the Foundation and the material gathered at its office contain probably the most complete statement of pension literature in existence. In addition, the trustees of the Foundation sought the advice and aid of expert actuaries, statisticians and economists.

The pension problem has become in the last twelve years a social and economic question of the first importance, and the trustees soon realized that the right solution of their problem was one of far-reaching effect. They endeavored, therefore, to deal not only with the details of teachers' pensions, but to determine the fundamental principles that must underlie a pension system designed for any group in the body politic.

This study extended over a series of years. The steps by which the various conclusions were reached are given in detail in the reports and bulletins of the Foundation. They can be best examined in these publications.

The conclusions to which the trustees were led were so important that these should be briefly stated in any account of the first twelve years of history of the Foundation.

The facts clearly established by these investigations were the following:

A pension system paid out of income, whether of a

government or of a corporation, at no cost to the beneficiary is expensive beyond all anticipation. Its cost is not only impossible to estimate in advance, but has proved an intolerable burden even to the practically unlimited income of a government.

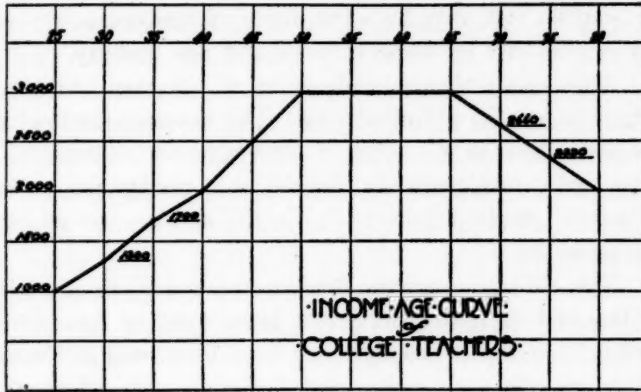
Experience shows further that while under the non-contributory plan the beneficiary appears to get something for nothing, it is certain that in a limited number of years the pension will be absorbed in the wage or salary schedule, and become practically deferred pay, received by only a minority of those interested.

The effect of the so-called free pension upon the individual is distinctly demoralizing. The notion of getting something for nothing appeals to our universal human nature, but it is a prolific breeder of human selfishness. Not only is this true, but the lifting from the shoulders of the individual of a responsibility properly and rightfully his is a source of weakness, not of strength. What society needs is the machinery under which the individual shall be able to discharge his obligation, without making an unreasonable demand either upon his financial resources or upon his self-control.

The evidence brought together convinced the trustees that a noncontributory pension system, such as they had inaugurated, was not in the permanent interest of the college teacher, and that it should be transformed into a system in which the expense could be definitely estimated in advance, in which the teacher should have the security of an individual contract, and in which the teacher and his employer the college should coöperate in establishing, maintaining and governing the organization through which the contracts for retiring allowances were to be made and carried out. It is a source of great satisfaction that the founder himself approved heartily and completely these conclusions.

When the trustees had gone thus far, they were only at the beginning of their problem. For a constructive solution one must know clearly what are the risks against

which the college teacher must protect himself. A glance at the curve here shown will enable one to visualize these



needs clearly. The curve represents the relation between age and income in our better American colleges. The college teacher begins somewhere between the age of twenty-five and thirty as an instructor at a salary of a little more than \$1,000 in the typical college. He reaches the full professor's salary of some \$3,000 and that remains fairly constant during the whole of his active period of service. Sometime between the curve of sixty-five and seventy the curve breaks down sharply. One may therefore separate the teacher's life experience into two parts,—first, the thirty or forty years of active life when his income earning power is sufficient to care for his family, and, secondly, the years that follow when income earning power has ceased, and during which some sort of old age annuity must be had. In other words, the two principal hazards against which the teacher and his family must be protected, are premature death during his active service, and protection for himself and his wife should he live to a period when income earning power is either diminished or broken down.

There is still the third hazard, that arising from disability, concerning which I will speak later and separately.

The two main hazards are those arising to the family of a teacher by reason of his premature death, and the

hazard of dependence after retirement from active service. Of these two the second is by far the greater. The first hazard, arising from the premature death of the bread winner, can be met only by some form of insurance, the second can be met by some form of old age annuity.

American college teachers at the present time use insurance only in a limited way. The average teacher carries about one year's salary in the way of insurance. In many cases, unfortunately, even this is mortgaged so that in case of death it fails to fulfill the service for which it was intended.

The old age annuities, known technically in insurance as deferred annuities, have not been used in America to anything like the extent that they have been used in Europe, partly because their value and the ease with which they may be attained has not always been made clear. The Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association has been formed to furnish policies specifically adapted to meet these two needs. What is practically an endowment of one million dollars has been settled on it in the form of capital and surplus, and the policies which it offers are not only the ordinary ones offered by insurance companies, but in particular it offers to the teacher a combination of cheap insurance during his active period of life articulated with an annuity contract which enables him to meet both hazards at an expense within his reasonable ability to pay.

Between these two hazards and the responsibility for providing against them, there is a distinct difference. The question of insurance touches the protection only of a man's family and is a question for the individual. No employer can be asked to share in that responsibility. Retirement in old age is, however, a question both for the individual and for his employer. In this case the college or university should cooperate with the teacher in the payments necessary to provide such a retiring allowance. The Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association, organized under the laws of the State of New York, was established in order to enable both the teacher and the college to carry



out in the least expensive and most direct manner this co-operation. Being a creature of the law and under the direct supervision of the Department of Insurance this association can make no discrimination between colleges and college teachers on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. Any teacher who so desires may take out an insurance policy if he can pass the necessary medical examination. Similarly, any college teacher may take out an annuity policy without any examination. The teacher may pay the whole of his annuity contribution himself if he so desires, or he may secure the cooperation of his college to pay a part of it. With all these matters the association has nothing to do. It is an association established under the law to furnish the machinery by which colleges and teachers may cooperate for the protection of teachers either by insurance or by annuities.

It is necessary to call attention to the fact that the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association is an insurance annuity company while the Carnegie Foundation is a charitable trust. The first may make and will make specific contracts; it cannot make discriminations between colleges on account of denominational tests, state control, or other causes. The Carnegie Foundation, on the other hand, may not enter into contractual relations and it is required by its charter to make certain discriminations in the colleges to whom it may directly pay benefits.

In discussing the form of insurance policy which the college teacher needs, it is well to remember this elementary fact. Insurance on a man's life, like insurance on a house, is intended, in part at least, for protection against a certain risk. In the case of a human life, the risk is that of economic loss of income earning power. When a man has no longer the ability to earn an income he has nothing to insure, any more than a house can be insured after it has so deteriorated as to have small value. The kind of insurance, therefore, which a teacher needs, who has to live entirely on his own salary, is the simplest and cheapest policy that will cover the life risk during the period

of his active service. After that active service ceases, he has no economic loss to insure against, nor is he likely to have the income to pay the premiums on an insurance policy. The simplest policy to cover this risk is that of a term policy. A man at age thirty can take out a policy for \$5,000 to run to age sixty-five at an expense of a little less than \$5 a month. The kind of policy a man needs will vary with his circumstances. A man who has other means than his salary may prefer to accomplish this result by an endowment policy. As can be readily shown the interests of the man who lives on his salary will be best served by a term policy of insurance combined with an annuity contract to articulate with it.

The Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association has just published its handbook. In this will be found abundant illustrations of how insurance and annuity contracts can be combined to the advantage of the teacher. In it will be found also a description of the policies offered both for insurance and for annuities. The whole theory of the establishment of the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association rests upon the assumption that the teacher himself, if he is willing to master a few fundamental facts concerning insurance, will be better qualified to select the kind of policy that suits his needs than to have this selection made by an agent who, even with the best intentions, will find his judgment somewhat affected by the fact that he has a direct financial interest in the choice of the policy that is made.

I may add that the process of establishing such a company as the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association has been by no means simple. Insurance legislation has been for so long a time fashioned upon the theory that the policy holders must be protected from the insurance companies that an agency which intends to do something more generous than the law contemplates finds its hands tied. This statement applies not less to the very large number of insurance companies which are conducted by men of the highest integrity whose highest purpose is to

serve effectually the interest of their policy holders. In this matter those who were establishing the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association have had the most helpful cooperation from the insurance officials of the State of New York who have been glad to place at their disposal not only their great knowledge of technical insurance matters but also suggestions as to how the purposes of the Association could be accomplished in conformity with the somewhat complicated and exacting laws of the state.

It is not advisable for me to undertake to describe in detail any of the Association's policies. The two tables which I have here presented will illustrate some of the best. For example, a man at age thirty may take out a rather unique form of policy which we have devised, known as a *decreasing policy*. Starting with a policy of \$10,000, which would cost a little over \$9 a month, a teacher might carry the policy at \$10,000 until he reaches age forty-five, and from that date on allow it to diminish at the rate of \$300 a year continuing the same payment. When he reaches sixty-five it will have been reduced to \$1,000 which is a paid up policy that day. If, at the same time, a teacher started an annuity contract at \$10 a month, one-half of it being paid by his college, he would have an insurance protection during the interval of about \$10,000 and at sixty-five would be able to retire at about \$100 a month. If he never increased his insurance or his annuity protection, that afforded by these small payments would be far better than college teachers have today.

The reserve at the end of the period of accumulation provided by monthly premiums of \$10; and the monthly annuity on male lives beginning at age 65, provided by monthly premiums of \$10 is shown below:

Age at Issue	Monthly Annuity at 65	Number of Mos. Paid	Total Premiums Paid	Reserve at End of Period
25	\$109.81	480	\$4,800	\$11,649
26	104.47	468	4,680	11,083
27	99.35	456	4,560	10,539
28	94.41	444	4,440	10,015

## ASSOCIATION OF

29	89.67	432	4,320	9,512
30	85.11	420	4,200	9,029
35	64.81	360	3,600	6,875
40	48.13	300	3,000	5,105
45	34.41	240	2,400	3,650

The other table shows what can be accomplished in the way of an annuity policy by payments of \$10 a month, whether paid in full by the individual or jointly with his college. The table discloses the great advantage of beginning payment on a policy at an early age. Thus, \$10 a month beginning at age twenty-five, gives a monthly allowance of \$109.80 at age sixty-five, whereas the same payment, beginning at thirty will produce a retiring allowance of only \$85 a month.

It is not worth while for me to take your time to go into further illustrations of the policies open to teachers through these policies. I venture to add one other word. Every college which fully visualizes its duty must in the future provide some system of retiring allowances for its teachers. There is presented in the Teachers' Association a plan worked out with the expert aid of well-known men in Europe and America and prepared with the sole motive of the effort to solve this problem of the teachers' retirement fairly and justly and within the financial ability of the teacher and his college. It is a solution which gives the teacher an assurance that he desires, namely, a contractual old age annuity and insurance under the most favorable conditions; it gives to the college a system not only well within its clear ability to support but whose cost can be definitely known in advance. In no other way than by this method here proposed can all these ends be accomplished.

There is still one other question untouched,—that is the hazard of the teacher due to physical disability coming five, ten, twenty years after he has entered upon his profession. For the present the information concerning this hazard is not sufficient to warrant the Teachers' Association in offering policies, but the Carnegie Foundation will, for

the colleges associated with it, carry this risk for a period of twenty years, and will pay, in accordance with its rules, to teachers disabled after five years of service, on surrender of their annuity contract, two-thirds of the annuity which they would have had when they reached the age of sixty-five.

The seventy-four institutions associated with the Foundation will find the inauguration of the plan of insurance and annuities a very simple and inexpensive one because their older men are cared for under the retiring allowances of the Carnegie Foundation. They will simply have to meet the small cost of contributions to new men, increasing gradually in time to five per cent of their salary roll.

To the colleges not associated with the Foundation, two problems present themselves: teachers below a certain age, let us say forty, can with advantage enter immediately into the contracts for insurance and annuities of the Teachers' Association. For teachers well over this age, the contributions that have been mentioned would not afford satisfactory allowances at age sixty-five or even at age sixty-eight. Each such college will therefore need to deal with these two problems—one, the problem of the future which includes the younger men now in the institution and those who may enter in the future; this problem is simple and inexpensive. The other problem lies in the effort to provide modest retiring allowances for men of high age. This second problem is a difficult one because it is very expensive to solve on a generous scale. No college can do for its teachers what the Carnegie Foundation does for the teachers in its associated colleges, except at an expense far beyond its probable ability. If any of the presidents of the Association of American Colleges will send to me a statement showing the ages and salaries of their teachers, we will endeavor to suggest the most helpful solution of the problem which our experience can furnish.

Let me say one more word in conclusion.

While the officers of the great insurance companies have taken the most friendly attitude toward the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association some statements will be made by one person or another concerning insurance which will be calculated to deceive even the very elect. For example, you will be told that facilities equal to those of the Teachers' Association can be had in existing companies. Any man who believes this and will go and try it will be undeceived. There are just two sources from which any life insurance company may accumulate a surplus: one is a rate of interest greater than the legal rate; the other a mortality below that of the mortality tables. The Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association has the service of a finance committee whose members are as able to discharge their duties as any men in America. It may safely be assumed that the association will earn on its funds as good a return as other conservatively managed companies. The mortality of teachers is not exactly known but there is evidence to show that the teacher is, by and large, a preferred risk. The Teachers' Association should, therefore, accumulate a surplus quite comparable with that of other good companies. No company which pays from 18 to 25 per cent. of the premiums of its policy holders for overhead cost can furnish a steady form of insurance upon the same terms as a company which has corresponding income returns and corresponding mortality and devotes any surplus earned to the benefit of its policyholders.

But, you will be told, the policies of the Teachers' Association are what are known as non-participating. They do not contract to return any earned surplus to the policy holders. This particular point is a technical one and it is interesting to see how many of the brethren who are professors of psychology or philosophy or economics are ready to render an opinion upon it.

The facts are these, and they have been stated many times.

The form of organization and the forms of policies for the Teachers' Association were determined in consultation



with well known experts and with the Department of Insurance of the State of New York. Necessarily the charter of the Association and its policies must conform to the state law. For thirty years no mutual company has been organized to grant participating policies in the State of New York. The only way in which to organize a company with an endowment in the form of capital and surplus sufficient to take care of its overhead costs was to make the policies non-participating. In procuring the charter, those who were responsible for the establishment of the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association sought to include in it a statement that any earned surplus should be distributed to the policy holders. The Department of Insurance decided that this could not be done under the law, but consented to put into the charter a provision preventing the trustees of the association from profiting by any such surplus that might be earned in the future. The Department of Insurance further called the attention of the incorporators to the fact that the association when once it had earned a surplus would have a legal right to distribute such surplus in the form of dividends exactly as had been done by other companies, for example, the Metropolitan, which, until a short time ago, issued non-participating policies. This form of incorporation was therefore adopted under the advice of the officials of the Department of Insurance of the State of New York for the reason that it is directly in the interest of the policy holder. The men who are the trustees of the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association are high-minded and honorable men. To those who may say that they have ulterior designs and that they will not carry out the announced purpose of the charter, one can only reply that in every company, whether organized on the mutual basis or not, the policy holder is, in the last analysis, dependent on the good faith of those who conduct the company. They determine how large a proportion of their premiums shall remain in surplus, and how large a proportion shall go in overhead cost, and how large a proportion shall be returned to the policy holder in the form of dividends.

Q.—Dr. Pritchett, I should like to ask how a small college would proceed to get the benefit of this provision?

Dr. Pritchett: You mean to avail itself of the facilities of the Insurance and Annuities Association?

Q.—Yes, sir.

Dr. Pritchett: The first thing to do, I think, would be to get into communication by sending us a list of your teachers and their salaries and ages and we can out of the cases we have gone over give you an estimate of both sets of problems. I called attention this morning to the fact that the plan for younger teachers is a simple matter. The handling of the problem of the accrued liabilities of the older men is more difficult. Some colleges are not going to make an effort to deal with that at all. That is a very much to be regretted position to take, I think. It is too bad to have, as has ordinarily been the case before, a just and sound system of pensions for old age annuities sacrificed for older men preventing the possibility of a permanent system. It would be too bad to prevent the getting up of a sound system for younger men because it could not apply to older men. But every college should make an effort to deal with the problem of the older man's retiring allowance. Now that will require some adjustment because few colleges will be able to put together enough money to pay a fair retiring pension from their own resources to a man above a certain age. Therefore the easiest way, I think, in view of the experience we have had, for a college that is getting ready to take up this question is to send the data to our office and I will put our actuaries to work. We will work out two or three alternatives for the older men, one of which ought to be within the reach of even a college of very modest resources. There is no way, however, by which you can pay the extensive pension, which must accrue in the case of older people. There is no way in which the pensions of older men can be paid at anything like that approaching the rate which can be made for younger men. Therefore you must make some compromise between doing the best you can and doing nothing at all.

I will repeat that for any college which cares to take this up and will write me, giving a list of its teachers with their ages and salaries, we will work out what seems to us on the whole the most feasible scheme.

Q.—Supposing a member of the faculty wishes to transfer to another college.

Dr. Pritchett: It makes no difference whatsoever. He has his personal contract. Before he goes to that college he undoubtedly would say to the college, "Now, of course, you are going to take on your part of my retiring allowance," and, of course, they will do it if they want him; that is one reason why it pays the colleges to begin early with these young men.

Q.—Does he carry with him the accumulations of what the colleges have paid?

Dr. Pritchett: Certainly, that is an absolutely sound principle. That was a principle which must be assumed for this reason: Sooner or later that differential will be absorbed in the salary. It belongs to the professor. It is practically deferred pay. That money will become in time deferred pay and it belongs to the teacher. The contract is in his name. He owns the contract and when he takes it, it is like a life insurance policy and goes wherever he pleases with it. But, if he chooses to transfer from one college to another, undoubtedly he will make some arrangement before he goes.

Q.—Can a man leave college work altogether and still continue the insurance?

Dr. Pritchett: Yes. That was a question which required a great deal of negotiation with the Department of Insurance, and some of these policies have taken a good many months to work out. You can't under the law make an insurance contract with a man and when he has been with you two or three or five years turn him out and say you won't insure him longer. You have got a contract with him. The matter had to be managed with him in this way. The regular rates of the Insurance and Annuity Association have a loading of ten per cent. which is about one-third of the loading put on by the ordinary insurance

company. We insure, however, a man who is a teacher at a ten per cent reduction. Whenever he leaves he can continue both his insurance and annuity at his own cost but he pays a ten per cent. load on it which is cheaper than he can get ordinarily.

Q.—Mr. Chairman, perhaps Dr. Pritchett has already answered it and I may have failed to catch it. But I would like to ask what about the case of an annuity when a man changes institutions, the college and the professor joining in the contribution?

Dr. Pritchett: The whole theory of the annuity contribution is that money which is jointly deposited and paid in by the college and the teacher belongs to the teacher. The contract is with him. And that is fair and right. The transfer from one college to another, just like the question of residence, hasn't anything to do with this ownership.

Q.—In order that we may perhaps get an idea of what it means to have the Insurance Association assume this overhead charge, I wonder if Dr. Pritchett can tell us approximately the difference in cost per thousand at any one of the ages of insurance and annuity as compared with the cost per thousand in any standard company?

Dr. Pritchett: The cost you will find in the reports of the Carnegie Foundation, the estimates made by experienced actuaries,—it would depend on the form of policy. But the great service that this association does for the teacher in the matter of insurance is giving him insurance suited to his purpose. There is one feature that we talked of this morning which perhaps ought to be explained a little further. These policies are non-participating policies. We had to do that in order to make use of the endowment. The law won't let a mutual company pay its expenses out of any surplus and very properly so. It has to pay its overhead charges out of the annual payment of the policyholders. The law never quite anticipated the case of any body organizing insurance companies and putting in endowments to pay these overhead charges and still leave it a mutual company. We had to make it a non-participating policy. We can't go out and claim to be at the same time

a participating and a non-participating company. But the law did this: it went ahead and prohibited strictly both the company itself and the stockholders from ever using that accumulation for profit of their own. In this way the trustees and incorporators have expressed their intention to return it to the policyholders.

Q.—But the rates, Dr. Pritchett, are substantially lower even to the teachers at present than in the ordinary companies, isn't that true?

Dr. Pritchett: Oh, yes. Here is a fair illustration of it: We will take one company, a very good one, the Northwestern Mutual of this city. They took in last year about \$58,000,000 in premiums and paid out about \$9,000,000 of that for overhead cost. Now a policy issued by such a company will start at a rate of 30 or 40 per cent above the net rate. As dividends are applied, this will approach the net rate and in course of time if the policy is long lived will fall below it. I have a policy in one of the best companies issued 35 years ago. At the expiration of twenty-five years its rate as affected by dividends had come to the net legal rate. But when a company applies its surplus to the benefit of policyholders, it goes without saying that the company which has no overhead charge can furnish a cheaper insurance. The Teachers' Insurance Association can not promise any such distribution in advance, but it can, whenever such a surplus is earned, legally distribute it.

Q.—Is this opportunity also open to other officers of the institution, as regular bookkeeper and treasurer?

Dr. Pritchett: You will find that the charter was very carefully drawn for that purpose. It says in the charter, "teachers, officers, or other employes in college, university, institution of research, and so on." So it may include anybody who is employed at all by the college.

Q.—Male or female?

Dr. Pritchett: Male or female, yes.

**CO-OPERATIVE PURCHASING**

John C. Dinsmore, Purchasing Agent, University of Chicago:

Just one year ago I had the pleasure of addressing you upon the possibilities of a central purchasing bureau. In that brief paper I cited many instances where the funds of American colleges had been wasted because of the lack of reliable commodity data. I then recommended that you tax yourselves to maintain a central office to collect, tabulate and distribute information concerning prices, sources of supply, and the economical use of materials. In this connection it was suggested that even further economies could be effected by bulking the purchases of many colleges.

As a result of that paper a permanent committee was appointed, whose duty it was to collect data and give the plan a thorough trial. The first act of this committee was to draw up a questionnaire concerning the prices paid, quantity consumed, and quantity on hand of the following items—canned goods, electric light bulbs, toilet paper and office supplies.

After the replies to the questionnaire had been received Dr. Kelly attempted to classify the data but discovered that this was an impossible task since there were hardly any two items alike. The replies and the samples received showed most clearly that there was complete lack of anything approaching standardization.

Your committee therefore set about to get something that could be classified and accordingly sent out another questionnaire asking for samples, prices paid, annual consumption, and quantity on hand, of envelopes, letter heads, and examination books.

We found that the envelopes readily fell into three classes, bonds, bondines, and government envelopes. The average cost per thousand was \$3.18. We recommended that as many colleges as possible use a 20-pound Wizard bond envelope which could be purchased for \$1.50 per thousand and could be printed at the mill at a cost rang-



ing from 18c to 45c per thousand. We also offered to handle their orders for letter heads at a correspondingly low price. In response to these offers we received orders for 392 thousand envelopes and 200 thousand letter heads at an estimated saving of about \$600.00.

From time to time throughout the past year we have sent out other offers on rubber bands, examination books, typewriter ribbons, carbon paper, soap, soap powder, etc. Dr. Kelly estimates that every hour this committee has met has resulted in a saving of one hundred dollars for the colleges. Up to date we have filled orders from eighty-six universities and colleges located in twenty-eight states. We have sold \$5,300.00 worth of merchandise on which we have saved the colleges 28 per cent. This is the result of more or less spasmodic committee work.

In order to keep up the general interest in the project we called a convention of College Purchasing Agents at Lake Geneva July 23-25, which was attended by representatives from twenty-three universities and colleges. All were agreed that the possible savings would be enormous, and a committee was named to draw up a constitution and effect a permanent organization. This committee has drawn up a constitution and by-laws and will submit it for your consideration today. May I again bring to your attention some specific instances of the economies of the intelligent interchange of reliable information and the still greater economies of centralized purchasing?

For two years the purchase of the ninety-six institutions of the state of California has been made through a central purchasing bureau. I have just received a report of the activities for the year ending November 1, 1918, which shows a net saving of \$2,106,952.92 on the total purchases of \$8,320,385.10 or slightly more than 25 per cent.

At the Lake Geneva conference on co-operative purchasing I made the statement that we could realize an annual saving of fifty thousand dollars. My paper was followed by a concise statement of a prominent industrial

engineer who asserted that the proper purchase of the printed forms alone would result in a saving of at least one hundred thousand dollars.

Co-operative buying is not a dream or an experiment. The Biddle Purchasing Association of Chicago and New York has served the hardware jobbing interests of the country for more than forty years, and has held many of its clients for over thirty years.

The Biddle Association charges from \$400.00 to \$2,000.00 per year for their services. Do you think that any group of business men will renew such expensive subscriptions for many years if they do not get an adequate return for their money? Do you know that the cost of operating a modern purchasing department is less than one per cent of the total purchases? The cash discounts on the average run of purchases should more than pay the operating expenses of your purchasing departments. Two per cent discount figures about 24 per cent per year while even at the highest rates bank interest is not over one-third that much. Yet the educational institution that consistently discounts its bills is the exception rather than the rule. Why not borrow a few more dollars and discount your bills, and utilize your cash discounts to set up a central purchasing bureau or at least a central purchase information exchange? The savings from such a change would soon reduce your operating costs to the point where it would not longer be necessary to ask for an extended line of credit. We boast about the efficient business management of our educational institutions yet we continue to leave the ultimate decision concerning the expenditure of millions of dollars to janitors, engineers, head painters, and housekeepers.

At the instigation of the National Association of Purchasing Agents the Federal Trade Commission issued an order against seven varnish manufacturers because of commercial bribery. Look in your paint shops and you will find the product of some of these firms. A prominent coal dealer was recently criticised in the Black Diamond for

selling Franklin County coal and delivering Springfield coal. A college in the Springfield district last winter paid more for Springfield coal than the government price for Chicago. Many of the institutions of the country are today using materials which were originally selected because of the greatest service per dollar, but which are today the most expensive materials you can get. Think you that these abuses and this misspending of money could continue if you had a central purchase office? Think you that these conditions can continue indefinitely? We are now facing reconstruction following the most costly war in the history of the human race. Two of the former great powers are bankrupt, and the available supplies of materials of the whole world are greatly depleted.

Is it not most fitting that the great educational institutions of the country should put their house in order and eliminate the wastes of individualistic purchasing? Let us pool our purchase information, and if need be combine our purchases, for the dollars you are wasting are not merely changing hands, but represent an economic waste at a time when no true patriot can afford to waste anything.

**IN WHAT WAYS CAN THE RELATIONS BETWEEN  
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES BE  
STRENGTHENED?**

I. C. A. Duniway, President of Colorado College.

It will be well to start with at least an assumed set of definitions, such definitions, in some particulars, being contrary to facts but substantially describing the situation.

I assume that colleges are meant to be those separate institutions whose major work is liberal arts or arts and sciences, and only in a minor degree including vocational training, whether that be technical or broadly professional. I also assume that by universities in this discussion are meant those institutions whose primary and major purpose is the maintenance of vocational training of the technical and professional character. It is, of course, perfectly well known to a body of competent observers like this that most of our universities in America, and there is scarcely any exception, are also colleges, and were colleges before they were universities. We, however, for our discussion had better confine ourselves, I think, to the consideration of relations between the separate colleges and the universities as such.

We have before us in experience certain efforts that have strengthened relationship. One most interesting experience is that of Chicago University in its plan of affiliation with collegiate institutions. Chicago University has even extended it into high schools. I can well remember finding in the Rocky Mountain region that certain high schools were affiliated with the University of Chicago. These are public high schools. There is, therefore, that sort of thing to take into account. Then there is a very different system, the interesting experiment that was tried by Northwestern University, and, I suppose, is still in operation. This was an effort to co-ordinate the work of the colleges with the professional schools of Northwestern University by an agreement under which the student who had completed satisfactorily three years in college and then went to a

professional school of Northwestern University would have credit in his college for that year of work toward his Bachelor degree at the same time that he was getting credit for his professional work toward the professional degree.

There is also a large body of experience with graduate scholarships and scholarships. Some of them are specifically for the graduates of particular institutions, but in general they are not of that character.

The endeavor here is to lead promising young men and women out of the colleges into the higher professional training of the universities. Most usually these lead to the graduate schools of arts and sciences and not to work in the professional schools.

Then there is the other very interesting example, the benefit of which is enjoyed by a small group of five colleges in the so-called Harvard College exchange system of professors, whereby a member of the Harvard faculty spends the better part of a college year in residence, lecturing and teaching more or less in each of these institutions, and then the colleges send men to Harvard who there have the advantages of life and a certain amount of work at Harvard.

I am not attempting a complete category but speaking of obvious things that might most easily be borne in mind as we are discussing this subject.

To speak of the last one first, the system has conferred great benefit upon the colleges when these men of admirable personality, of rare scholarship and of distinguished standing in science or letters have come to these institutions and have been in residence in periods of from two weeks to a month or six weeks. As a Harvard man I have taken some pains to ask some of the Harvard faculties about how it works from the Harvard end. There is a good deal of doubt in Harvard as to what it is doing for Harvard. Those chiefly responsible for the administration of Harvard College feel that if the system is beneficial for the colleges they wish to see it continue. Some of the members of the faculty of Harvard think that we have mainly a plan by which the young men in these colleges who have not yet earned

their doctors' degrees will be granted the privilege of a year of resident study at Harvard and thereby get their doctor's degrees, and Harvard University therefore is not really profiting very greatly by the system. Some would like to see a genuine exchange of the best men in the several institutions who would be thoroughly equipped to give some special instruction. The idea might well be imitated by other great universities desiring to help the colleges toward a fuller scholarly life.

Of course running all through this is a well known fact that troubles us all, those in administration as well as the men in actual teaching. The salaries of most of the men in the college faculties are inadequate to permit them to take a seventh year as a sabbatical year, even on half pay, which to most is not available, for scholarly refreshment and for scientific research.

What I would like to suggest as very desirable, as well worth trying, that would profit American colleges and indirectly American universities, is a development of a better system. First, from the standpoint of the colleges, they should grant to members of the faculty sabbatical leave of absence, and, considering the scale of salaries, on two-thirds pay. Make it the custom of the college, if not in formal terms, almost compulsory that one year in seven the professor in the college should spend in some great university and become better equipped for his work in the college. As far as we can possibly provide the money, it will be an investment that will bring large returns. Do not give the leave to a man as a reward for having taught six years, but make it an investment in him whereby he will return and do better service for the college.

I wish to commend to my colleagues in administrative work efforts to do this kind of thing, making it as nearly the prevailing custom and system as we can.

The colleges as separate institutions are naturally the competitors of the colleges in the universities, I mean the undergraduate colleges. The engineering schools, although professional schools, are on the basis of almost strictly undergraduate standing.



For about a dozen years I have been greatly interested in trying to see if it would be possible to have colleges or schools of engineering built on top of a considerable amount of college work.

Having my bachelor degree from Cornell University, I have been very greatly interested in its organization. Dean Smith of the Sibley College of Engineering about ten years ago manifested great interest in the idea of making the engineering college if not a postgraduate college at least a college based upon two years of preparatory college work. I well remember a talk with him on the subject a few years ago in which he said that the effort had met with almost complete discouragement. The simple fact of the matter was that the young men, with rare exceptions, would not take five years beyond the high school to become equipped as engineers. This was partly due to competitive conditions. Cornell alone, or two or three institutions alone, could not succeed with the plan. If one could get the agreement of practically all the engineering schools of the best standing, it might be done, but the experiment had pretty nearly failed at Cornell. I mean, judging it by the test of quantity. The quality of work done by those who would take five years, the faculty uniformly testified, has been splendid.

I am still greatly interested in that problem, and I think that we who are in the American colleges ought to give it more attention than it has thus far had. I believe, frankly, that many of our colleges ought to give up the effort to maintain schools or colleges of engineering and confine ourselves to the work of the department of liberal arts or arts and sciences. And then do this: see to it that in the first two years the young man is in the college he gets those subjects which the engineering college now obliges its students to take in the first two years, but which are not really engineering. Mathematics is not engineering, but it is indispensable for engineering. College physics is not engineering; it is preparatory to it. The first year of college chemistry is preparatory to engineering. Mechanical drawing is preparatory to engineering. The first year of college

English and the second year of college English, if need be, are in the same category. Elementary work in French or German or other modern language is not engineering but preparatory to it. The shop work that we give in our colleges of engineering is usually manual training, and is not as well done as in the best high schools.

I go into these details to make sufficiently clear the argument that the first two years of the work of the so-called college of engineering can be just as well done and perhaps better done in the college of liberal arts. You have a strong department of mathematics, a good department of physics, and another of chemistry, and so on. The boy at the age in which he takes that sort of thing will probably on the whole do better in college than he would if he went to a great engineering school.

This co-ordination is pretty well worked out now with medical schools and is getting pretty well worked out with law schools. Why might it not be desirable for co-ordination and co-operation with engineering schools?

In fact, I am willing to be an advocate of that sort of thing. I think that that can be worked out in Colorado College, for one place. There are all sorts of obstacles to overcome. Whatever is established, the fact it is established is a reason for letting it alone. There are questions of competition that bother us as presidents, and bother those who act as secretaries or field agents of our colleges in getting students. But, after all, I think that in the long run those problems can be disregarded if we are working upon sound grounds of collegiate policy, adhering to the work of our college of liberal arts, letting the universities do the professional work, and getting the help of the universities to make the standard of admission to the college of engineering to be like the standard of admission to the colleges of medicine or law.

I wish to suggest one other subject which does not concern itself with professional work although it is pretty nearly that. Statistics of the great graduate schools of this country show that a great majority of students in such schools are there preparatory to teaching. They hope for

college positions. They will take high school positions, and most of them have to take high school positions.

In the relationship between the college and the great graduate schools of arts and sciences, we as representatives of the colleges can see to it that the work of the departments leading to the graduate schools is well done. The universities can help us very much by upholding standards of admission. The problem, after all, in these questions of standards is not one of unwillingness of the administrator to see good standards prevail, but a practical problem. When students ask the terms on which they can get their year's credit or their master's degree, we can mutually co-operate in the colleges and universities to see to it that good standards there prevail.

In the next place we would like to have such common grounds of meeting that we who deal with undergraduates in our colleges proceeding to their bachelor's degrees will fully understand and appreciate what the universities ask for the appropriate degrees.

But one may say, "You get that in the catalogs." But I find that my colleagues, like most of our students, do not read catalogs, and it takes a bit of personal touch for them to get an understanding. Therefore I would like to see, not a system of exchange professorships, but a system of exchange of friendly visits; not so much inspections with what those imply, but friendly visits from appropriate members of the university faculties to the colleges in order that the efforts of the college faculties to keep alive in the minds of young men and young women a desire for higher professional training in graduate schools may be supplemented and strengthened.

Wholesome rivalries that have always prevailed and will prevail no one need deplore. Like parallel railroads we can compete in faculties, not in cut rates.

Relationships between the colleges and universities ought to be strengthened and can be strengthened. I well remember when, having made the acquaintance of two excellent people who were graduates of Cornell University, and having decided to go to their alma mater, I ran across some

friends connected with denominational colleges who held up their hands in horror and exclaimed: "Go to Cornell! that Godless institution, that place in which chapel is not required, that place in which there is a president who has written a book on the warfare between science and theology!"

Well fortunately, that spirit has largely gone out, and we can tell stories about it but don't have to deal with it very much nowadays. Having lived in a great university, as I lived in Cornell, and as I subsequently lived in Harvard, one finds that, as much as mere magnitude will permit, there is no lack of a fine spirit of devotion to truth, and character, and religion, such as we cultivate in the smaller colleges.

We do not need to deal in pettinesses of rivalry. We can generously and heartily co-operate, setting forth to the prospective student what we have to offer but saying to him, "Well, if this doesn't suit you, there is the University of Illinois, the University of Chicago, or the University of California. If one of those great institutions appeals to you and you think you can get more out of it, I will give you letters of introduction so that your way may be made smooth." After all, it doesn't so much count that your institution and mine should flourish and have many students as that good educational opportunities and the benefits therefrom should accrue to the largest possible number of American boys and girls.

---

## II. Frederick C. Ferry, President of Hamilton College.

One of the oldest organizations for the advancement of higher education through mutual discussion and conference is the so-called "New England College Presidents' Association." This body has met in annual session for more than a half century. It was understood from the beginning that no vote on any matter of policy should ever be taken at its meetings; so much was it feared lest coercion or, at least, interference of one institution with another might be attempted. Some of the earlier conferences of this body were marked by violent altercation between mem-

bers. The tension frequently ran unpleasantly high. In one instance the president of East University urged that the Latin admission requirement of West University was much lower than that of East. This the president of West vigorously and vehemently denied. The catalogs of the two institutions, faithful to the reputation of college catalogs, seemed not to make the situation clear. Accordingly the Latin professor of West was called to act as arbiter and gave a clear and unqualified decision against the president of his own institution. At such discussions Mark Hopkins is reported to have been particularly welcome inasmuch as he had a ready gift for quieting strife with a gentle touch of kindly humor. It is now many years since these New England gatherings ceased to be occasions of contention and became permanently imbued with a spirit of mutual cooperation. It is even reported that, in a moment of forgetfulness, a vote on a question of policy concerning them all was recently passed. The experience of this association is characteristic of the change of spirit which has been taking place quite generally in the educational work. Educators are no longer quickly suspicious of each other or of each other's institutions.

The undergraduate whose conduct is sufficiently heinous is nowadays expelled. Too often, in earlier years, he carried a letter of honorable dismissal to a rival institution. It was the avowed policy of one college, supposedly reputable otherwise, just a few years ago to mention in letters of transfer any instances of minor misconduct but to omit reference to flagrant misdeeds. To rid the college of an undesirable student was an object so much to be desired that truthfulness and regard for a sister institution seemed to be forgotten. Earnest efforts toward a common agreement in these matters have brought an era of frankness and kindness among the colleges between which undergraduates transfer. One still hears of those cases where a student's "general lack of progress seems to demand a fresh start," or "his fraternity affiliation appears to be proving unfortunate," or "his unstudious habits need to be broken by a change of scene," or "his health demands a different cli-

mate." In these cases it is fulfilled which was spoken of old, saying, "It is more blessed to give than to receive." College professors are said to be very enthusiastic over the much advertised proposals for exchange of students. If the teacher may select those to be taken from his classes, he is sure that he will profit by the trade. But these are days of helpful co-operation in the entire field of education. The university president who flatly refused to give the benefit of his experiences to a college officer belongs to a past generation. In spite of "that passionate love of competition which possesses English-speaking men," the time has come when American institutions of higher education are ready to give earnest effort to any worthy plan of co-operation.

It is through co-operation that the most marked advance in collegiate education in the recent past, the revision of college entrance requirements in the direction of uniformity, has been accomplished. The large associations of colleges and secondary schools have contributed greatly to this movement. So have the College Entrance Examination Board, the various certificate boards, the National Conference Committee, and all those great organizations comparable with this in whose name the conference of today was called. The oldest of those many organizations appears to have had its origin as late as 1884. Only since then has the lesson that the "path of the greatest usefulness lies in co-operation" been learned; but it has been learned and promises to be carefully heeded in the further development of American collegiate education. What may one expect the further contribution of the universities to the colleges through co-operation to be? Are there new and untried ways in which a group of colleges may draw aid and inspiration from the university?

The typical university possesses a graduate school in which a spirit of earnest scholarship lives and bears fruit. Such a spirit is far less in evidence in the college. Plainly the largest service which the university can render to the college would be the contagion of a deep devotion to the things of the mind.

Already the university contributes much which bears



in this direction. The great associations of scholars known as the "learned societies" are usually permitted to hold their holiday meetings at some great university. It is a valuable experience for the professor from a small college to spend two or three days of his vacation in the atmosphere of such a place. Something of its spirit accompanies his return to the daily task.

Again the university ordinarily allows the members of the college faculty to avail themselves at all times freely of the privileges of its library. The professor engaged in research cannot hope to find on the college book-shelves the volumes which he needs. But the university has them and there he may best go to use them. Could this service of the university be rendered more available to the college professor, scholarship would still further profit. If it were feasible, it might be worth while to have at the college a duplicate catalog of the university library so that the college investigator could readily determine exactly what volumes are within his reach. Failing that, he must write or, still better, go and see. The privilege of making one's self acquainted at first hand with the treasures of a great library is a privilege very precious to a scholar.

The temporary exchange of professors between the university and the college is another movement making for sound learning. The professor selected by the university for such exchange should be a scholar capable of teaching undergraduates and of inspiring his associates. The man delegated by the college should be one especially fitted by experience, age, and taste to take advantage of the great opportunities which the university affords. Again, the Philosophy Club, the Classics Club, the Historical Association, the Phi Beta Kappa Society, and all the other organizations standing for intellectual work in the college should have their meetings distinguished frequently by the presence and participation of some inspiring mind from the university. Here is a most profitable field for university extension of the best sort. The memory of an evening when the voice of a great scholar was heard in the college lives long.

But may not the development of the spirit of scholar-

ship in the colleges call for more radical measures? These post-war days demand that waste be not permitted in any field of life. Many a college professor is proving wasteful of his opportunities and faithless to his trust. It was the head of a department in a reputable college who announced the other day that the only real benefits of the college course are to be found in the "undergraduate activities" and that the classroom interests should cease to interfere with the time of the students. Another professor insists that "these boys do not come to be educated but to rest their backs for four happy years against the sunny walls of college halls." Such sentiments are contagious among undergraduates. The walls of their "studies" show neatly framed mottoes suggestive of their attitude: "Do not let your studies interfere with your education;" "Do not study today what you can hope to bluff tomorrow;" "Never study between your meals;" "It is better to have come and loafed than never to have come at all;" and finally, still better revealing the cleverness of the indolent student, this gem: "Burn no midnight oil but gasoline." Everyone knows the college professor who helps the undergraduates to believe in such a philosophy, and no college faculty is without him. His instruction produces idleness, but not scholarship, and temporary comfort of mind, but not character. He never insists on the learning of any lesson; he has large classes and is counted popular; in his courses no one ever fails; the only undergraduate interests which he does not warmly support are those of his classroom; his nickname is bound to be a familiar one and frequently is "old" something or other, though he may still be young; he is commended by undergraduates to alumni and trustees and his rank and salary are full. But there is no coin small enough to remunerate him justly for his service to the college. He constitutes the heaviest burden which the college has permanently to bear. He occupies with disastrous results a chair which a strong teacher might make of everlasting service to his pupils. His crimes demand expulsion, but an administration hesitates to dismiss a man so generally approved. It cannot always be shown by the examination papers of his classes

that his work is futile for he frames the examination questions himself and his pupils may have been coached accordingly in the preceding days. The incompetent secondary school teacher has his incompetence revealed by the failure of his pupils in such standard examinations as those of the College Entrance Examination Board. Is it not possible for a College Examination Board to be formed by a group of cooperating colleges, under the scholarly influence and helpful leadership of the universities, which shall regularly examine college students in all courses at the end of the year and accurately reveal the quality of the instruction of every teacher? The application of such test would at once revolutionize the teaching in many a course where a revolution is sadly needed. By this means the voluntarily ineffective teacher would be induced to become effective, and the hopelessly unfit would have his unfitness sharply disclosed. A wholesome competition between colleges would at once develop; that competition would involve both the teachers and the taught; and it would touch the great and vital interest of the college. The question of content of college courses would be subject to other criteria than the individual caprice of the professor, not always in step with the progress of his subject, but needing under such a system to become so. By the wider recognition immediately accorded to the great teacher and by the revelation of incompetence wherever it occurs, the morale of the college professorate would be vastly strengthened. The College Entrance Examination Board has shown that an examining body for schools made up of college and secondary teachers can gain and keep the confidence of the educational world and contribute largely to the improvement of secondary education. What university and what colleges will be the first to improve college education through the formation and use of an examining body for colleges made up of university and college teachers? Within two or three months after the close of the Civil War, 60,000 men returning from the colors are said to have entered schools and colleges. A "veritable passion for education" arose, old colleges were enlarged and revived, and a host of new colleges were

founded. He who makes two colleges to grow in this country today where one grew yesterday is no certain benefactor to education. Not new colleges, but old colleges renewed by a more earnest struggle for a worthy and simply and clearly defined goal,—such should be the institutions which the returning student-soldiers find waiting to welcome them. For a quickened enthusiasm for scholarship, the small institutions may well draw inspiration from the larger. The way of escape from the “vagueness of aim and lack of intellectual stamina” characteristic of too much of college education may be found there. No greater service can the universities render to the colleges at this time than the kindling anew in them of the flame of the torch of sound learning.

**CO-OPERATION BETWEEN COLLEGES AND  
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN PROMOTING  
EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP**

Evarts B. Greene, Chairman, Committee on Education for  
Citizenship of American Council on Education, and  
Professor of History at the University of  
Illinois.

I am going to take the liberty of departing a little from the subject indicated on the program. I do so partly because, after all, the topic is a very large one and I have felt myself in some danger of falling into those "profitless platitudes," as somebody called them, to which "educators" are supposed to be peculiarly liable. I thought also that it might be more useful for me to take what time I have in bringing out certain thoughts that have come out of a unique experience through which I have passed during the last quarter, and through which I suppose most of those present in this room have also passed, namely, the S. A. T. C. To many of us, doubtless, the S. A. T. C. seems like a bad dream from which we have just awakened; but there are, I am sure, some others who feel that with all its trials there have been certain things in that experience which it may be worth while for us to capitalize with a view to future use.

Now, the particular part of the S. A. T. C. for which I happen to have had a special responsibility at the University of Illinois was the institution which most of you know as the War Issues Course. The other day the president of our university referred to that course politely as "a peculiar course, conducted by peculiar methods, with peculiar results"; and there was, of course, a great deal of truth in that characterization. It was conducted in a great variety of ways in different institutions throughout the country and no one realizes more keenly than those who were in any way responsible for it that the results were far from ideal. Yet I think nearly all of us who have been engaged in this work at the University of Illinois, and many men in other insti-

tutions, have felt that, in spite of all our troubles, we did get something out of it.

The content of the course was in a general way defined for us by the Committee on Education and Special Training of the War Department. We were supposed to provide during the year some instruction on the historical background of the war, something about the ideals of different nations as illustrated in their governments, and finally something about those same ideals as they found expression in philosophy and literature. This program was based upon the theory that these young men who were going to perform one of the obligations of citizenship, who were going to fight for their country,—that all those men, whether they went into the infantry, or the artillery, into the air service, or clerical work in the quartermaster's corps, or engineering construction—they all had one common vocation and that this common vocation of the citizen-soldier made it important that they should appreciate what their country stood for, what were the great issues in the conflict in which they were all going to take a part.

It was at once evident that to handle such a course, with the large number of students involved,—over 3,000 in all,—we had to have co-operation—and co-operation on an unprecedented scale. We had to call for teachers, not only from the departments which we would ordinarily think of first—history, political science, economics, and sociology—but from many others. It seemed to us also that we needed not a mere series of specialized lectures but the kind of treatment which we could get only from men whose interests were not limited by the conventional limits of their particular departments. So we asked and secured co-operation not only from our colleagues in the social sciences, in philosophy and literature, but also from men in apparently remote fields whose civic interests had led them to read widely and think seriously about the war and the great historical forces out of which it developed. One of our lecturers, for instance, was a professor of botany, who happened to be of German descent, and had taken his doctorate in a German university, but, having inherited



the liberal traditions of the "forty-eighters," was able to present the issues in a peculiarly vivid and personal way.

Now in doing all this we were of course breaking away, for the time being, from the rigid departmental traditions, which have so strong a hold upon our universities—a much stronger hold than in the colleges which have never gone so far in their worship of the departmental fetish. In the case of the lecturers, we were able to get men who, whatever their departmental relations, had some kind of special preparation for the work. In order, however, to get classes sufficiently small to admit of free discussion, we had to enlist also discussion leaders who, making no pretensions to expert knowledge, nevertheless knew enough to keep a little ahead of the students whom they were called upon to teach. Among these discussion leaders were some of the best men in the university—the dean of our College of Agriculture, a professor of civil engineering who was for many years the chief of the United States Reclamation Service, and a professor of thermodynamics who had been a persistent reader of historical and philosophical literature. In all there were some seventy of these discussion leaders, drawn from all the undergraduate colleges of the university.

Now, the S. A. T. C. has come and gone. The War Issues Course has passed, or is passing, in the particular form of which we have been speaking; but we may well ask whether there is not something in this experience which points the way to a more effective service by our colleges in the training of students for citizenship? With that possibility in mind, we at the University of Illinois are continuing the War Issues Course through the current year and considering whether we can not develop something to take its place in the years to come.

If it was important that the student, as a citizen-soldier, should know what he was called to fight for on the battle fields of France, is it any less necessary that the college should help him to understand what are the issues involved in the even more complex conflicts of civil life? Some of these young men are going to be engineers and some of

them are going to be physicians and some of the young women are going to be teachers and some are going to do other things; but whatever their choice of profession, they all have in common this vocation of citizenship. If that is so, should not every college reconsider its program and consider whether along with our minimum requirements in physical training or English, there should not also be a course for all these students embodying a scheme of coordinated instruction—not merely a tying together of specialized departmental courses—dealing with the issues which they will all have to meet as citizens.

Hitherto, of course, the practice has been quite different. Generally speaking, colleges and universities have had their history, or political science, or economics, and the student who was interested in political science elected a course in that subject just as he might have elected a course in, let us say, calculus, or civil engineering or Greek. It was assumed that interest in politics and interest in citizenship were specialized interests rather than matters of universal concern. Now the consequences of this attitude have been rather serious. I think it has already had a bad effect upon the teaching of history and the social sciences in our colleges and in the universities. Some years ago when Professor Turner, whom many of you know, went from the University of Wisconsin to Harvard University, a dinner was given in his honor here in Chicago by his colleagues engaged in the teaching of history in the middle western colleges and secondary schools. In the course of the remarks which Professor Turner made that evening he referred to a striking change that has taken place in university instruction in this group of social sciences. He spoke particularly of the conditions which existed at the Johns Hopkins University back in the eighties when he was a student there. Formal instruction was then much less highly developed; the number of courses offered either in history or in political science or in economics was much smaller than is now given in universities or even in many well equipped colleges. And yet he felt that the students of that period got something in the way of an appreciation

of the relation of these different sciences to each other which they were failing to get in these later days. Many of us share this feeling that we are too rigidly departmentalized and that we need to break up these water-tight compartments in the interest not only of the students but of the sciences themselves.

Now, I am very far from advocating that we should go back to the day when a professorship in a university or college was a settee instead of a chair. I do not mean to be quite so reactionary as that. But what I do insist on is that we have suffered a great deal because of this artificial division of subjects, often based upon the accidents of administrative organization, and that we can all profit by a new kind of co-operation. To go back again to our War Issues Course, I think I am safe in saying that some of the best instruction we had was given by men in the department of English whose interest in literature was distinctly a historical interest; one which led them to emphasize not so much matters of literary form as the content of literature, literature as the expression of ideals. I am sure that all of those who took part in our weekly staff conferences felt that the historical students and the political scientists had their vision considerably widened by the different point of view from which our literary colleagues approached the subject.

Now, I have no hard and fast program to propose. I think different colleges and universities will have to deal with it in different ways. I am not sure whether there should be some one uniform course called a course in citizenship; but there should at least be a group of correlated courses. In the giving of that instruction there should be co-operation; there should be some exchange of views and we should not worry too much whether a certain item of instruction is charged up against the budget for history or the budget for English or political science or economics as the case may be. There is also, in my opinion, something to be said for drawing in some teachers whose subjects seem to offer few, if any, points of contact with such a course in civic training. Even in departments apparently

quite remote, there are men whose reading and thinking, whose skill as teachers, are such as to make them excellent discussion leaders. It would then be a case of an older citizen, with no pretensions to specialized expertness, helping to initiate candidates for citizenship by talking over with them matters of common concern. If, for instance, we can persuade our mechanical engineer to lead engineering students in discussions of this kind, he may interest them in that socialized view of their profession, which the best members of that craft now recognize as of the utmost importance. I do not know whether any of you have read the very interesting report on Engineering Education prepared by Mr. Mann for the Carnegie Foundation, but if you have you will find that he lays a great deal of stress on this, as one phase of engineering education which is quite inadequately provided for at present.

In presenting the arguments which may be made in favor of such instruction, I should like to point out and face quite frankly certain difficulties and certain dangers. Some of them are strictly administrative difficulties; of these I am not going to speak, because if the thing is worth doing I am sure that ways and means will be found for carrying it into effect. But what I think is more important for us to consider in an open-minded way is whether, given an effective organization, the thing will really do more good than harm.

I think the most searching and subtle objection that has been made to anything of this kind is this: that if you establish a uniform course, a general course for the training of citizens and put it into the hands of a particular group of men, there is a good deal of danger that they will carry into it something of that element of propaganda, which is legitimate in its proper place,—because I take it that it is perfectly right and perfectly honest for a man who has certain convictions to seek to impart those convictions to other people—but which after all are not quite appropriate in scientific instruction.

Is there danger that a course of this kind would fall under influences which would lead men to use it for the

purpose of putting across certain formulae to which they had individually committed themselves? Is it likely, for instance, to fall into the hands of somebody who thinks of American ideals as something like the ten commandments or the Shorter Catechism, something which can be definitely codified once for all and then communicated to each succeeding generation. If the course is going to be given in any such spirit as that, I think most of us would wish not to have anything to do with it; we should feel that it would be thoroughly objectionable. It would be equally objectionable if it should fall into the hands of a group of men who would use it for propaganda of precisely the opposite sort; men who think they have found one simple formula of reform or revolution by which all the ills of the body politic are to be made right. It seems to me quite essential that those who organize a course in civic training should do so with a perfectly frank recognition of this danger and a determination to avoid it.

Can it be done? It seems to me that the kind of spirit in which a course of that kind should be organized,—and I think it may be said to the credit of the men who organized at Washington the War Issues Course that that was their point of view also—is that of open-minded discussion. Such a course may be well given by men who have conservative convictions, on the one side, or radical convictions on the other, or by those others who prefer the “middle way” of compromise; provided only that having real convictions themselves, they nevertheless know how to present fairly other points of view; to welcome and encourage frank discussion instead of discouraging it.

Now, I think if we can get that kind of service—and it may not be altogether easy to get it—it will be a great help in enabling us to send from our colleges a new type of citizen who will know how to check up on the current catch words and phrases which are so effective with the ordinary voters, whether those catch words and phrases come from the extreme right or the extreme left. Young citizens so trained will have some historical background, some standards by which these plausible formulae may be tested.

What finally, is the significance of all this for the relations between colleges and secondary schools? Well, I think most of us who have taken much interest in the training of teachers for high schools have become pretty familiar with one complaint which school administrators of secondary schools are bringing against the universities. They say that we are training men who are interested in being botanical specialists, or historical specialists, or specialists of other kinds, but not sending out an adequate supply of young people who, along with this thorough discipline in the special subjects which is of course indispensable, have also acquired some sense of larger relationships. Perhaps we may even have retrograded in this respect since the days when the colleges were smaller and did not have quite the same facilities for building up distinct and competing departments in subjects more or less allied, with her professors more interested in seeing their particular departments enlarged than in those responsibilities which they share with colleagues in other departments. Now, if the colleges can free themselves a little from this rigid departmental tradition, they will point the way for a similar improvement of our high school service. We may hope also that young people who have been given this broader civic training in college will be able to go out and give a similar kind of instruction in the high schools.

If we can thus produce a new type of teacher in history and allied subjects, we can stand with a good deal more assurance than in the past for a radical improvement in the status of such teachers. How pitiable is the position in the average community of the person who is supposed to initiate young people into an adequate conception of their rights and duties as citizens! He is, to begin with, "hired" from year to year and the mere use of that word is more or less of an offense. If his work is good enough to enable him to look forward with some hope to promotion, he is either transferred to an administrative position; or if he is called to some other place no serious effort is commonly made to keep him. I have talked a great deal with young people who are interested in secondary school teaching in



history and civics, and it has become quite evident that you can not expect a young man, even moderately ambitious, to look forward to that sort of thing as a career.

I believe then that what we in the colleges have got to do, in co-operation with our colleagues in the secondary schools and with the better type of superintendents, is to see to it that we have the kind of people teaching these subjects who are not merely citizens in the formal and legal sense of the term, who are really civic figures, who really count in the community, staying in it long enough to have some permanent stake and interest in it, long enough to have a position of dignity not wholly inferior to that of the doctor, or the lawyer, or the banker.

In short, I believe that the War Issues Course is one of many emergency experiments of these strenuous times which, though far from ideal in operation, have nevertheless given us some ideas that are good not only for war time but for the coming years of peace.

**FEDERAL LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION**

John Henry MacCracken, President of Lafayette College.

Only a year ago we were quite unanimous in the opinion that the college needed, that the country needed, some national agency to co-ordinate American education and to increase the effectiveness of college service in the winning of the war.

We talked of a national administrator of education, and we went from the meeting of this association to other conferences here and in Washington, and organized an Association of National Educational Associations which has come to be known as the American Council on Education. We went further, and carried to the Senate, to the House and to the White House, a report of what we understood to be the conviction of the educational forces of America that education was not properly represented in the national councils, that American education had no international voice, much less an international hand or pocketbook.

On January 31, 1918, we presented to Senator Hoke Smith, Chairman of the Senate's Committee on Education, a letter from which I will quote a paragraph to show that our thought went out beyond war time. The letter said:

"The opportunity is before us of co-operating in large educational undertakings with France, England and Italy, and of helping in the educational reorganization of Russia, and the educational awakening of China. Our educational relationships with the South American republics also are sure to grow rapidly in extent and in importance. We must act in all these matters as a Nation and not as separate and individual states. While leaving to the states all the old measure of autocracy in their own educational systems, it will be necessary to provide some central and general agency through which they may all express themselves in policies which are either national or international in scope.

"Since education is universally recognized as the first corollary of democracy, it seems incongruous that it should not be recognized as of equal rank in the councils of the nation, with that accorded Commerce, Labor and Agricul-

ture, all of which have representatives in the President's cabinet \* \* \* The creation of a Department of Education would in our judgment unify, direct and stimulate effort, and would give just recognition to the dignity and practical importance of Education in the national life. It would also establish a governmental agency for dealing with international educational problems of a rank co-ordinate with the educational departments of the majority of the great nations with which we shall be dealing."

Today conditions are very different from what they were last year at this time. We were sure, then, that we needed not only a Federal Leader, but even a Federal Administrator. Today we are not so sure. The pendulum has started on the return swing. We have had a taste of military dictation and it has left a bad flavor in our mouths. I understand that the only time the faculty of the University of Chicago ever voted unanimously on any subject was when they voted recently against continuance of military training in any form. The attempt to retain control of railroads, the arbitrary seizure of telephone and telegraph lines when the war was over, the frightful waste of bureaucratic circumlocution and stupidity, the absence in American official circles of that sense of fair play which is so characteristic of better Americans in their private professional and business life, the excesses and blind tyranny, the sloth and greed of Bolsheviki and Soldiers' and Workmen's councils abroad,—all these things make us skeptical as to the wisdom of casting the federal government for any more important role in the great drama of Education for a Democratic World, upon which the curtain of a new era is about to rise.

There must, therefore, be cogent reasons for the step if it is to win our adherence and support, arguments which will bear rough matter of fact handling, ends which looked at in any light or from any angle will still appear desirable.

For myself, I have re-examined, in the light of the year's experience and changes, all the arguments which we advanced a year ago in the letter to Senator Smith and

I am as ready to subscribe to that letter as a declaration of faith today as I was a year ago.

Like all great reforms we mistrust the proposal because of its very simplicity and obviousness. To the question, is Education a national interest comparable in importance to agriculture, commerce, labor; the press, the trade unions, the man in the street, are prepared to give an affirmative answer. The truth of the matter is not that we don't recognize the significance of education in our national life, but that we are all so much interested in education in America that we all want to have a hand in it, and hesitate to set up a department and say Education belongs particularly to this jurisdiction. Everybody wants to educate. Agriculture wants to teach, Commerce wants to teach, the Treasury wants to teach, the Postoffice wants to teach, Labor wants to teach, the White House wants to teach, the little country school district wants to teach and resents being consolidated with a neighboring district, while there is hardly a child born who is not ready at the age of five to explain the universe and direct the steps of his little brother of three.

If there is a stumbling block in the road of Federal Leadership in Education, I should say it was not so much lack of appreciation of the importance of education in national life, as too widespread appreciation of the fun of playing teacher and too little appreciation of the rich rewards which come to the teachable spirit.

You are all familiar enough with the subject to marshal each of the arguments pro and con for himself. The arguments which I find most cogent naturally group themselves for me under three heads:

- (1) The International Argument
- (2) The National Ideal Argument
- (3) The Argument of Convenience.

The International Argument is simply the argument applied to Education, which gave us in the first place our Union of States. If there had been no international problems, no problems of commerce or war with other nations, we should probably never have had any Federal Govern-

ment. International relationships created the federal government. Up to this time our international relationships in education, in the world of Science and Letters, have been of minor importance. Now, they are assuming a place of primary importance. If national ambitions are to be turned from aggrandizement by war to the satisfaction of human needs and the improvement of the individual, then education, science and letters must come to constitute a very large part of the stuff of international intercourse. If war is to be impossible in the future, then we want educational attaches as our eyes and ears and mouthpieces at our foreign legations, as well as military or naval attaches, and such other relics of a past age.

And when the United States officially invites a foreign educational mission to visit this country, we want it arranged so that President Cowling and Professor Schofield will not have to pledge their Carnegie pensions as security for the traveling expenses of the distinguished visitors, because the great United States, however friendly it may feel, however much it may desire closer relationships, is deaf and dumb and a penniless beggar when it tries to assume the role of International Educational Host.

The second group of arguments I call the Argument of the National Ideal. This is the argument woven from the stuff that dreams are made of, the lightest, airiest, toughest, most inescapable stuff we know. In America we have always had a right to make our State in our own image. We have never been taught to believe that the State was a ready-made institution imposed on us by God. The writers of our Declaration of Independence and of our Constitution took care that we should be constantly reminded that our State was a device for human needs made for man, not man for the State, so that Man was Lord also of the State and could discard any particular form if it failed to work.

As the discriminating Frenchman, Rodriguez, has observed in his recent book on America called the People of Action: "To the American his fatherland is not behind him in a venerated past; it is before him in a future which

he foresees and is helping to bring into being. The American is moving toward his fatherland and creating it by the very movement in which he seeks for it. He is conscious that she is his work, that she comes forth from him, rather than he from her. His country is, more than anything else, a will to be, a part of his own will, a hope rather than a reality and a hope to be realized. He will realize it. That is his true reason for being."

And many of us, as we picture to ourselves our ideal State, are not satisfied that it shall be a state of merely soldiers and workmen's councils, or even a state merely of successful business men, and farmers, capitalists and trades unionists. The means to life have somehow in America usurped the place of life itself in our daily life as well as in our governmental organization, and we feel that one step in correcting this disorder and restoring a proper emphasis will be to give to education, to science, art and philosophy, at least equal recognition with commerce and agriculture in the scheme of things at Washington.

Third, there is the group of Arguments which we may call the argument for Convenience or Efficiency, arguments which are matter of fact, and as easily demonstrable by experiment, as the argument from the National Ideal is cobwebby and illusive. Under this head I would group all the arguments which demand a Department of Education because there are specific tasks which we want done and we find we have no machine guaranteed to do them easily, promptly and inexpensively.

While we may agree fairly well on the first two arguments and the conclusion which they will support, we are likely to part company when we come to this third group of arguments. Naturally in a great country like ours one set of people want one thing done, another another thing. If a machine is to be set up, some day it must be a churn to make butter, others a sewing machine, others a pump, others an automobile for travel, others a phonograph, others a printing press. Probably we need all of them if our farm is to be completely equipped, but let us begin either by installing an electric wire with direct connections with



the public treasury, or else a gas engine with a good fat appropriation barrel of oil, and having made sure of the supply of power we can hitch it up to any machine we may thereafter acquire for a specific need. If such a plan is too ideal, let us compromise on some sort of a self-starting automobile in which we shall be able to travel not only, but which we can block up in the barn in the winter months and put to running the threshing machine, or to sawing wood.

In this article I can not go further than indicate the lines of argument. We hope the whole nation will turn itself into a debating society, and that the national policy will follow what proves to be the soundest argument. We must not be discouraged if the movement takes time. Mrs. Humphry has recently claimed that the Fisher Education Act of last August, England's notable contribution to educational reconstruction, is for the most part simply an embodiment of the ideas of her Uncle Matthew Arnold, who held the office of Inspector of Schools from 1851 to 1886. Twenty-five years of agitation were required to produce the present bureau and fifty years have not been long enough to convince Congress of its right to larger appropriations. But the pace is quickening and the new department will be ready for America when America is ready to use it.

In the meantime what are the practical steps that are being taken toward the desired end. I have made an analysis of the legislation affecting education proposed during the present Congress. It was an illuminating and surprising study. Apart from the legislation dealing with education in the District of Columbia or other district wards of Congress there have been about sixty different bills introduced during the 65th Congress appropriating some two or three hundred million dollars for education. These classify themselves generally under four heads.

(1) General legislation affecting the organization and administration of federal education.

(2) Legislation granting federal aid to engineering, agricultural and vocational education, three branches of

education which have already received definite federal recognition.

(3) Legislation providing for education in other special directions such as Americanization, illiteracy, public health, deaf and dumb, music, etc., etc.

(4) Legislation providing federal financial aid for particular institutions.

A score of bills belong to the last group and appropriate various amounts varying from the seven million acres to be given the schools of Nevada to the reduced carfare which is to be allowed a student from any part of the United States who studies in Washington.

A score of bills belong to the third class and show immense originality and variety from the bill providing for the establishment of a National Conservatory of Music and Art and prescribing how many rooms there shall be in each building and how many pupils each room shall hold, to the bill providing for investigating and teaching the science and art of manufacturing and using Oleomargarine and providing that Oleo may be used free from tax in college dining halls. Here also are the bills providing for a Federal Board for Physical Culture, and for a Bureau in the Department of Labor which shall give instruction in Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy.

In the second group there are only half as many bills but they make up for their small number by the huge size of the proposed appropriations. Here are the bills providing millions for vocational rehabilitation of wounded soldiers, establishing schools and departments of mining, establishing engineering experiment stations and providing for a National Board of Engineering and Industrial Research, which may deal with anything in heaven above, in the earth beneath, or in the waters under the earth which bears on the welfare of the people of the United States.

Finally, in the first group, fall the bills in which we are particularly interested at this time, and for which the bills in the other groups illustrate the need and form one of the most obvious arguments. In the first group there are a number of war bills dealing with the display of the

flag, the teaching of German, military training of various degrees and kinds. Leaving these aside there are three or four bills which bear directly on the question in hand.

There is first Mr. Husted's bill providing for a commission of five persons to be appointed by the President to inquire into the condition of public education of the several states and to recommend such measures as it may deem advisable for the improvement of the same, the commission to report on the following subjects particularly: The desirability of establishing a uniform system of public education throughout the United States under Federal regulation and control; the advantage, if any, to be secured through Federal legislation of uniform application through the United States providing for compulsory education, registration of children, inspection of schools, examination and licensing of public school teachers and supervision of teaching; the desirability of establishing a national system of military education and training; the desirability of providing optional subjects in educational courses in colleges and universities and the extent, if any, to which such selection should be permitted; together with such constitutional amendment or legislation as may be necessary to carry the recommendations into effect.

The bill illustrates very well what Dr. Kendal has so clearly pointed out in his study of the Land Grant Acts, namely, how little any one conversant with education has to do with Federal legislation, actual or proposed, on education. A constitutional amendment to determine whether a sophomore might have two or three electives in college would be federal leadership, indeed.

Then, there is Mr. Sears' bill providing seventy-five million annually for scholarships in State Universities and creating a Federal Board for Military Training; and various other plans for military colleges in the various states at Federal expense.

There is Mr. Foss' bill to create a National University open only to those holding Masters' degrees and giving no degrees itself, the university to be governed by a board of thirteen with the Commissioner of Education Chairman

and by an Advisory Council made up of the State University presidents.

Then, there is a bill which closely affects all college presidents, because it provides that you can not beg for your college without a license which you are to get from the Commissioner of Education by paying \$2.50, and which is revokable at his pleasure. What a simple device that is to place all American education under the thumb of the Commissioner of Education, because of course if a college president could not beg, there would be no excuse for his existence.

And finally, there is Mr. Owen's bill creating a Department of Education with a secretary at a salary of \$12,000 and an assistant secretary at \$6,000; and Senator Smith's N. E. A. Omnibus bill which not only creates a Department of Education, and permits the President to transfer to the new department such agencies of government beside the Bureau of Education as he may deem wise, but which seeks to marshal various powerful forces behind the bill, by consolidating with it the various bills for Americanization, Improvement of Rural Schools, Abolition of Illiteracy, Physical Training, and Elevation of the Teaching Profession, and appropriating a round comfortable hundred million for the purpose.

Political expediency may make it desirable to secure the support of powerful lobbying interests in this way but I am of the opinion that just as the attempt to secure a Department of Education a few years ago failed when promoted by the Sage Foundation which had a special interest along the lines of child welfare, so the present attempt to place Education where she ought to be in the councils of the Nation is more hindered than helped by being made to carry with it certain specific purposes in which some of the people are interested and some not, and regarding which there is great diversity of opinion as to whether the cost should be borne by direct or indirect taxation. The same objection holds against the bill recently introduced in the House, which proposes a Department of Education and Human Welfare, thus saddling education which has a very

definite task to perform with all the vagaries and schemes for human betterment which the fertile American imagination can invent.

Of one thing I am quite sure, nevertheless, and that is that in our plans for Federal participation in Education we want more of the leadership of ideas, and less of the compulsion of cash. The American people have already a deep distrust of efforts to direct moral and social movements by the persuasion of loaves and fishes, and the danger is equally great and insidious whether the loaves and fishes be in the hands of private individuals or in the hands of office holders. If the Federal Government is prepared to give freely to education I, for one, would favor receiving it gladly; but if the Federal Government proposes to exact a price for every dollar, then I say it is sounder economics and better politics for the States to apply their own money directly to education rather than to pass it over to Washington to be bought back at a price.

In the Morrell act the grant was a gift practically without conditions. In the vocational grant, a harder bargain is being attempted. In the Smith bill, even the pretense of free gift is cast aside, and the Federal Government appears frankly bargaining for control in the States in return for its cash.

This is a fatal defect, which, however, is not essential to the main purposes of the bill and which can be remedied. I think, however, that it is quite clear that if a change from State Education to Federal Education is desired, it should be secured openly on its merits by a constitutional amendment and not bought by the operation of sordid motives.

We have learned a good deal from our experience with the S. A. T. C. the past year in more directions than one. For one thing it has set a new high standard for unselfish co-operation in education in the public service. With all the faults of the S. A. T. C. I think you will all agree that one of its great glories was the spirit of democratic equality which controlled its administration. Small and great were treated equally. There was no respect of persons and no suspicion of service of any special interest. If

we could always have such enlightened bureaucrats we should be much more ready to place education in Federal hands. But with all its purity of purpose, the S. A. T. C. experiment demonstrated also that our country is too big to hope for prompt intelligent administration from a single center. We have come through the war, I take it, with a greater belief than ever in the father's wisdom in prizing so highly local self government. We watched with interest the advantages of the local draft boards under Federal direction and leadership and these lessons will, I judge, make us more likely to seek to retain state control of Education even though we seek to magnify Federal leadership and make every effort to secure for Education better representation in the National Councils.

Mark Baldwin says, "The rank which the United States now occupies in art, science, and literature is not, by universal consent, lower than fourth among all the nations of the world."

We dare not rest satisfied with fourth place. We covet earnestly the best gifts for our beloved land. We want first that our Nation should lead us, and then that it should lead all mankind in the best things of the spirit.

Rodriguez has pointed out that while French and Americans are both creative, it is their genius to create by first bringing to birth the idea, while with us, we plunge forward and act, and the idea is born in the throes of action.

We shall probably be true to our genius in this matter of Federal leadership in education. We shall not first evolve a perfect plan for a Federal department and then make the department fit the plan, but the creators among us will plunge ahead, give us some legislation, however crude, and as we act and move forward and do something, a more perfect conception of the possibilities of Federal leadership will emerge, which we shall all recognize as that leadership for which we have all been blindly groping.



### THE COLLEGES AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

I. James A. Blaisdell, President of Pomona College.

It has been quite impossible for me to put in any written form in the few days since I knew that I could be here, the things that are in my heart to say tonight. Indeed, it is impossible to put them in any formal shape whatever. I regret this, because I regard an occasion of this sort as of the very highest importance. I can conceive that a company of thoughtful men at just this time interested in education and forecasting plans for the future, may be one of the most influential bodies that has ever assembled in the world's history. For this is essentially a world of ideas, and it is with ideas that a company of school men is primarily concerned.

I can believe, therefore, that it was a most significant day when a year ago this body turned itself from the introspective attitude toward American education and set itself to the outbound projections and interests. I believe that it was a day long to be remembered and one that will have the most far-reaching consequences. Already we have been able to do something in this outward look into the world. Indeed, we have done much; and yet, in another sense, it seems to us as if we have done little. We have inaugurated a certain fellowship with the English and the French people. It has already meant very much to us who have come into some association with that fellowship and I am sure that it will mean more as the days go by.

How wonderfully even trifling events in the world of ideas are magnified as the years go by and perhaps, especially, when seen in their international consequences. You yourselves have in mind illustrations of this fact. A number of years ago an American teacher was traveling in Spain when an Argentine traveler stepped into the carriage with him. Years afterwards the Argentine traveler confessed that he was deliberately seeking, as he supposed, the company of an Englishman because he had great interest in English ideals and in the English people. As the con-

versation ran on he became interested in finding that his companion was an American, and so deeply was he impressed with the conversation and character of that American teacher, that he there decided that if possible his son from the Argentine Republic should have the same type of education as that which had been the good fortune of this American teacher. So it came to pass years later that the son of this Argentine gentleman came to Pomona College and lived among us. This in turn led to the consequence that one of our Pomona faculty made a visit to all the universities of South America, a pilgrimage up and down and across the whole of that continent; with the further consequence that this week there is at Pomona College a representative of the Chilean Government, sent to this country to begin the study of American education across the continent and from Mexico to Canada. He is now in this country studying the type of school which most of us represent, and he will doubtless have occasion to visit your colleges and universities; with the further consequence that he is the forerunner of a considerable company of Chilean teachers who are to follow in his footsteps for the purpose of studying American education and carrying back their findings to that developing people of the South. So do the simplest efforts in the world of ideas magnify and multiply and spread.

A few years ago a French lad made the strange decision that he would get his English in America instead of England. He came to America, entered Harvard College, was graduated from that institution and went back to be the propagandist and partisan of American interests and education in France, befriending all American students within his reach as they came to France, choosing as his under teachers of English, not Englishmen, but Americans, that they might be interpreters of the English language through American ideals and ideas to the French people. Within the last few months this French lad has been appointed the Professor of American Literature in the Sorbonne. By such processes as these may we be assured that what we do in the realm of international friendship will be multiplied and increased.

And yet I want to point out to you in speaking of what has already been done, a certain fact. I do not wish to be misunderstood in speaking of what I shall say, because I am most deeply interested in the knitting up of English, French and Italian scholarship with our American universities and schools. It has been our privilege to receive French students in Pomona College within the last few months. They have brought honor to us. And yet I should like to urge the contention that the full project of international education is much more comprehensive than this. The war, which we have just finished was, for the most part, fought on the line between Switzerland and the English Channel, but the stake for which that war was fought was a stake that lay in another part of the world. The war was fought fundamentally for a great highway that should run from the Baltic to the Persian Gulf, and that highway was desired because it was the highway to the unappropriated and unexplored potentialities of the east. And we shall never enter into the full virtues of all that has been done on the battle line of France until, as men of ideas, we also appropriate educationally that great east, which is to play such a tremendous part in the future history of the world. I venture to say that it is a comparatively simple task to knit up French, English, Italian and American scholastic friendship, rooting back as they all do into so many things that we all hold in common, a comparatively simple task as compared with the leavening of that vast east with its unnumbered millions.

We all of us know something about this potential capacity of China and Japan and India, and the countries that border the Pacific, and yet we have but barely learned it at best as yet commercially. It is a familiar statement that if every Chinaman should change his shirt once a week instead of once a month it would break down all the spindles and looms of Christendom and exhaust all the cotton supply of the world. But such statements give us little adequate idea of the East. When I was in Yokohama a gentleman landed there who was at that time the owner of one of the largest shipyards in America, and a shipyard at that time

was no bagatelle. He had abandoned personal supervision over the shipyard interests that he might engage in a far more lucrative enterprise in the Philippine Islands, and he had already achieved his desire there. And when he landed in Yokohama he had also abandoned this undertaking and was on his way to China to begin there the manufacture of shoes that he might be in "on the ground floor" when four hundred million Chinamen began to put on shoes! These are very simple and very crude examples, but they are examples of the tremendous commercial importance of China, the opportunities in China and the sway commercially that China shall ultimately have upon the world. And whatever power she has commercially, whatever power her four hundred millions may sway socially, this power she shall surely parallel, for better or for worse, in the world of ideas. Let there be no doubt of that.

Then, too, there is Japan, smaller than China and not destined, perhaps, to write so large a future as China in the long ages, but today the one forceful, constructive, far-seeing power of the Orient. Her hand is upon the helm of the whole East; her shadow is over all Asia; and what she thinks, that she will also communicate to China and to the nations of her Imperial influence.

Now, anyone who can look into the face of these facts and be unconcerned about the thinking of Japan and China or about the knitting up of the intellectual life of America and Europe with the East is strangely dull. We face today nothing less than a world problem. Having consecrated ourselves in such action as was taken a year ago to the outward look we have set ourselves to a task that is worthy of the largest scholarship that this world has ever seen as well as the most determined and forcible and ingenious man.

It is in this spirit, ladies and gentlemen, that I press the question as to what we are doing to make the East safe for the future. What are we doing to penetrate Japan and China and that mighty mass of human power, with those ideas and purposes, which, by God's grace, we as citizens of the American Christian College have inherited?

I am an admirer of Emerson, but one day Emerson

went astray. He said something like this. He said: "I thank the Lord that my friends came to me of their own accord without compromise. The good God gave them to me." I know of no better description of American foreign policy than that. As a matter of fact we get friends by being friendly. We know that we do not get friends by any such laissez faire policy as the quotation suggests. But our foreign policy, and particularly our foreign educational policy, our foreign policy in the world of ideas, which is the basic world after all, has been that we would take what the good Lord gave us. Statesmen do not deal that way; still less statesmen in the world of ideas.

In the year 1868, when the Japanese Emperor issued that edict which changed the face of all Japan and made her the explorer of the world, he selected a certain group of young men, able men of insight and outlook, of which company Prince Ito was perhaps the most noted, and he said to the group: "Go out into all the world and bring us back word as to where the great centers of world-supply are." And that wonderful group of young Japanese lifted the curtain at the edge of their country and went out into the unknown and untraveled world which lay beyond. They came back presently. They had been good observers. They said certain things. They said, "If you want to establish commerce and a navy go to England. Our country is much like England," they said, "a little island off a great coast. Our future lies in manufacture and on the sea. Make friends with England." They said, "If you want to make an army there is just one place to go; go to Germany." They said, "If you want to know about diplomacy, society, etiquette, go to France. If you want to know about learning there is just one place to go. We went to America and we found that American students when they had finished their education went to Germany. We find that English students go to Germany. There is no use in our students going to America; send them to Germany. That is the source of learning." But said these explorers as they came back, "If you want to build business, go to America."

Now, those are the lines along which since the year

1868 the Japanese have traveled out to find their world, and along these lines in turn these various races have gone back to make friends with Japan. England has made her naval treaty with Japan. Germany opened her war camps to the inspection of Japanese generals, and she sent her soldiers to take charge of the training of the Japanese army. She reached out also along the lines of her learning. She was not satisfied to let the good Lord give her her friends. In every considerable city of Japan there is a physician, and that physician was trained in Germany and is, at least, a friend of German interests and German Kultur, and Germany has seen to it that her best products in the way of medical discoveries have gone out to these far-flung students in Japan either in German dress, or, better still, in Japanese dress, so that these Japanese have kept their contact with German thinking and have maintained this fellowship with Germany which they so highly prized. The university professors of Japan were largely trained in Germany and in the university centers into which I had the privilege of going with remarkable familiarity I found there the longing for the German learning and the sense of Germany's intellectual friendship. So have these other races knit up their association with Japan.

But how has it been with us in the world of business? Have we made our part of business association with Japan a medium of friendship or the reverse? It has not altogether been bad. Not so bad as we sometimes think. All over Japan you will find the men who are friendly to America. I have sat down on the floor with them and talked with them of the problems of Japanese-American civilization, and I have found them thinking more kindly of us than perhaps we deserved, and yet, in some sense we do deserve well of them. But after all how inadequately we have wrought at this problem of fusing the international mind.

And now I have this to say: There never was a time in all the past, and there is not likely to be again a time in the future when all that vast stretch of Asia has been, or will be, so open to the friendship of American men of ideas



as today. China and Japan are eager to learn the English language. Already a foundation has been laid. English is taught, as you know, in almost all the high schools, and in most of the middle schools of Japan. There is a basal knowledge of English there. But if you would go into the smallest village in Japan or China and announce there your willingness to teach English you would be overwhelmed by the number of applicants who would come to get not only the English, but those ideas and sentiments of which English is characteristically the vehicle. The land lies open to possession, and this means very much more than in most countries.

You are aware probably of the fact that every Japanese and Chinese boy or girl is compelled to read and to learn to read in the Chinese script, and that from two to three years of the life of a child is wasted by that fact. Now, neither China nor Japan is going to be satisfied permanently to make the Chinese script, nor indeed, as I believe, their native language, the vehicle of the wider communication. In some form or other some other type of letters and some other type of language is going to permeate those nations and bind those nations to the motherland of that language. Shall it be English; shall it be American ideas? Who will see to it, if not we?

These nations lie open now to the entrance of democratic ideas. There is a world of things to be said about this. I can speak only in a single sentence or two. Japan has been loyal to the allies for three reasons: First, because she had a treaty with England. The second reason was that she must have the raw markets of the world, and she knew that there was hardly the shadow of a chance that she could get through friendship with Germany, no matter how successful that nation might be, an access to the raw markets of the world on which Japan's future depends. The third reason is this: Leaders of Japan are astute. They have sensed the forward movement of humanity, and they know beyond peradventure that it is toward democracy, and they want to be in on the great world's tide which they recognize is in progress. Today that move-

ment in their eyes has been vindicated. It is no longer in question. And they are eager to know all that can be known of American ideas of society, of government and of the individual.

Now, if we are going to do anything about this, if we are going to seize the peculiar opportunity to swing the East into championship of those things for which European and American civilization stands, how shall we do it? We have done it already somewhat by the establishment of American managed colleges and English managed colleges in China and Japan and India. No one can estimate what is being accomplished by such institutions as the new Yale, in China, and that admirable institution, McKenzie College, in Brazil, or the Doshisha University in Japan. But I think we shall have to say that those institutions are of a somewhat temporary significance; they can not be permanently the medium through which we shall work, because the time is coming when those races will become so self-conscious that they will be sensitive regarding the existence in their midst of foreign managed, administered and financed institutions, just as we should be sensitive over foreign managed and endowed institutions if located among us. Nevertheless, the work they do now is of incalculable good. They are the saving American element in the East.

The second thing we can do is to bring students to this country, but even that must be a limited thing, and it has its qualifications especially in China and Japan, for this reason, that a Chinaman or a Japanese in order to get much of our American education might spend a very considerable amount of time here. He must spend a long period of years. He must get the English language and become really familiar with it in order to be a real recipient from our institutions. Now, those years are commonly at the time of life when he needs to maintain a close kinship with his home land. If he comes here for six or eight years, say, from the time he is fourteen until he is twenty-two, and on, he loses step with his home people, and when he goes back he is a foreigner to them, and finds it difficult to sympathize with their life and happiness. Some of the most pitiful

cases that I met in my travels were those of men who had spent a long time in American institutions and found themselves then utterly out of sympathy and out of the possibility of helpfulness among their countrymen as they went back.

There is, in a third place, the possibility of exchanges, exchanges of professorships and exchanges of groups of teachers, traveling back and forth. These three or four things have been already to a considerable degree tested out, but none of them nor all of them will do the full thing that we need to do, the outlines of which we can but dimly see as one of the great tasks and one of the great privileges laid upon us. This leavening of the East can come to pass only through the long continued, carefully thought-out, patiently ingenious, and determined effort of a certain responsible group of men who shall set themselves to that task and who shall summon to it widely all those men of this country who can have a vision of what American education can do in Asia. And I can think of no leadership that by its obligation of inheritance is more committed to this statesmanlike effort of American scholarship in the Orient and in South America than is this company of colleges which is represented here tonight by this body. I believe I speak well within the limits when I say that there has never been offered to a body of American educational leaders such an opportunity to count in the long future of the world as is offered now in the chance to put ourselves and that which we have inherited into the life and thinking and ideals of the rising people of the great East.

---

II. Fernand Baldensperger, Professor, University of Paris  
Exchange Professor at Columbia University.

Having the great honor to address tonight a distinguished body of educators, I hardly need to apologize for illustrating, in a way, the well-known fable of one of the first educators remembered in history, Aesop. According to him, that queer animal, the bat, once took advantage of its double constitution, showed in turn wings or legs, and

insisted on being, following the circumstances, either a camouflaged bird or a disguised quadruped. In the same way, let me forget for a while, if you please, that your kind invitation was addressed to a professor of the University of Paris, and allow me to remember, as an officer and traveler, that I have been in the war and through the world, that I belong, by all my surroundings, to practical, though idealistic, people; and let me touch from the viewpoint of realities that very engaging subject, *Educational relations between France and America*. The wings of the bat may close for awhile and give their chance to the humbler organs of movement.

I think, indeed, that the best way to face the important problem which awaits us, American and French, is not to confront it from the educational side, but to let it shape itself so as to have its educational consequences modeled according to its well defined substantialities.

Isolation and detachment from world affairs are all right, and it may be that many problems would be simpler, or would not arise at all, if it were possible to continue in a sort of comfortable indifference to the rest of the universe. But what if world affairs are intruding upon us, compelling the most indifferent to be alert and alive? That hereafter, in the days already dawning upon us, America will be obliged to occupy a much larger place in international highways, roadways, airways, and waterways, and to participate in world politics, in world business, in world charities, and the like—may seem desirable or not: it is a fact, and troublesome as it appears to some of your business and political men, satisfied with their domestic market or with their home interests, you can not help your balance sheet from having changed to about 13 billion dollars internationally in your favor; you can not help getting some 500 million dollars a year in interest from foreigners, for which some returns in goods or credits are to be added to the \$1,300,000,000 of gold already in your hands. You can not help your shipping possibilities from having increased immensely, nor your organizations for foreign trade from having developed greatly. As fighting came latest to you, in the war,

you gave to your good will two main outlets: food supply and social assistance; and you can not help these dispositions from being now the channels through which American plenty will reach the suffering parts of the universe.

That, on the other hand, France will appear hereafter with the glorious aureole of her sufferings and sacrifices, not only as the quickest nation for reponse, readiness and heroism, but as the most supple in improvisation—may be a thorn in the eye of some of our competitors, but it is a fact. We can not help having supplied, some of our allies with 75s and 155s guns, despite a real shortage of iron and coal. We can not help having maintained, throughout the continuous duration of war activities, a high standard of national and human dignity, of intellectual attainments, of really civilized acceptance of unwelcome hardships. We can not help having been complimented, once for all, by Kipling and d'Annunzio, Van Dyke and Edgar Lee Masters, by Slavs and Latins, Greeks and Jews, for our combination of national spirit and true world-citizenship. We can not help some of our ideals from shining more vividly among the clouds of smoke and the haze of dust of our devastated districts. We can not help having just now in Paris or Versailles representatives from the whole universe.

Now, I do not wish in the least to minimize the importance of any of our faithful allies in this war; but these very realities seem to point to a more special and distinct position of reciprocity between our two countries, America and France, than between any other two. It may be that the entire possibilities included in this fact are not to evolve entirely out of it, owing to some adverse circumstances; but this would only show that the complexity of the world is greater than our grasp of it. As matters are, let us try to lay stress on the three or four points which compel us to think of the Americo-French relations in the world of intelligence. If I were speaking in France, before an assembly of educators or administrators, I would not fail to emphasize, as I often did, the advantage we French can draw from some of your characteristics, such as a keener social spirit, philanthropy and managing skill, an absence of dilet-

tantism; a broader hope given to everybody; self-confidence and optimism. As I happen to be here, trying to represent what may be interesting and important in the main features of the French character, allow me to dwell upon the other side of the question—the help we can afford you in the world of intelligence, according to those facts which we can not look too clearly in the face.

1. For the peaceful intercourse of after-war days, France is to be your bridgehead towards the East: not only towards continental Europe, but towards those parts of the world, Greece, Syria, Turkey, Armenia, where cultural influence from France is still very marked, where even Turko-German relations, during the war, had a French foundation, and where America has now a pledge of benevolent interest. France is to be a sort of national *vinculum* between nations of a truly parliamentary political organization, and countries ruled more or less visibly by influential families or individuals. France is to serve as a clearing house between Latin and English, southern Slav and levantine mentalities.

2. If all signs are not deluding, mere mechanical efficiency, which has been the pride, and perhaps the curse, of recent decades, will give way to a more humane treatment of humanity. The primitive will have less importance than the individual; handling mortal beings will be again an art, and not a science. Racial philosophy will be exploded, and practical psychology will take its place, as the relations between men are bound to become, everywhere, somewhat more delicate. I have it from the most reliable of sources that the German General Staff, in a Baltic province, has been contemplating, for the proper utilization of man power found in that country, the use of a helmet based on the doubtful principles of phrenology. Put properly on a man's skull, that helmet showed, by ingenious devices of hands and springs, what sort of faculties and talents he possessed, whether the "right place" for that "right man" was the banker's desk or the mechanic's shop or the workman's stool . . . This may look like a Frankenstein of Kultur, a mixture of inhumanity and efficiency. I do



hope that democratic countries will shrink back from such mastery in organization, and that such a way to out-Taylor Taylor will always find its opponents. And I dare say that French ways especially, in her colonies, in her schools and elsewhere, will be the better counter-poison to such crude derision of human dignity—and of psycho-physiology.

3. Are we sufficiently aware that owing to some decades of intense make-belief, will-to-conquer and advertisement, the air is full of distorted truths, dried bacilli, frozen lies, which, like the solidified words in Rabelais, seem to await better times, and are only the dead fantasms killed by that severe tester, war? One of them is that philosophy founded on absolute privileges rooted in race peculiarities. Another is the economic explanation of history. A third is the negation of the national, or of the individual, elements, in world affairs. Another is the contention that law and right are merely subjective. Another is the supposition that the survival of the fittest controls, in its crudest form, human competition as well as animal evolution. . . . And so on. We could, my friends, open a real museum of past and sophisticated truths, or half-truths, with all the dead bodies of those triumphant theories of yesterday. This poisoned air will take some time to be entirely cleared away. In the meanwhile, it is really a matter of security to put the gas mask upon some overcredulous people: and we know that American frankness is often accompanied by a certain dangerous candor; nobody has watched the American private or officer, as so many of us did, in the billets of the front, without feeling that the man who played with our little boys, who helped our old women, was a marvel of intellectual candor: a splendid quality if you are sure to keep aloof from the world; a dangerous readiness to swallow the pernicious particles of a new dogma, if you come into the world of unhealthy systems. Now, I think that France has always had—may I say the credit—of a larger amount of sound indifference to dogmatism. She disposes, in her literature as well as in her everyday life, of a certain smile, which is not only the smile of amiability, but the smile of just that quantity of skepticism which helps you

not to take these matters too seriously, in the country of Montaigne and of Anatole France.

4. Working deductively in all serious affairs is another feature of the French mind which, well known as it was to every student of Descartes, to every connoisseur of our teaching system, proved a surprise to many of your engineers and staff officers. Where the American *catches*, the Frenchman tries to *understand*. Where an "inspiration" carries the American, a deduction leads the French. And this peculiarity of the latter helped him, in the international affairs of the present crisis, to be the best middleman between different types of human brains. One of my closest relatives, who was interested in foreign affairs long before this high tide of international business, often told me that whenever a point had to be made admissible to a delegation of Italian, Slav, and English-speaking business men, there was a sort of confused preliminary stage, until a French mind and a French pen (possibly not a typewriter, I must confess it, so far behind are we in equipment) had drawn up the distinctive lines of thought to be followed by all these different brainworks.

Mastery of spoken language preferred to a mute knowledge of words and phrases; intelligence of literature, as representing a background of values, preferred to mere philology; readiness for accurate information and supple readjustment, even in scientific preparation, rather than standardized and specialized onesidedness; understanding of characters, as there is always, even in practical affairs, one point where living psychology plays its role; a better working on commonly agreed principles and admitted standards of thought: such are, without doubt, the main directions towards which your civilization, which has proved so idealistic in its moral tendencies, tries to gravitate intellectually. In a word, while France needs to be taught by you expansion of will, simplicity of thought and social readiness, we could be helpful in teaching you simply some concentration and application of mind. It is a cry which I have heard in many quarters of the American public, as I have heard among my countrymen the wish to escape,

*à l'Américaine* from conventionality and red tape in enterprise. I have seen it pointed out that the secretary Colonel House took for his important Paris work is a banker, not a diplomat, and that the President of the American Chamber of Commerce in Paris owes to his French education and to a long stay at the Khedival Tribunal at Cairo a versatility of interests which fit him distinctly for his task: but in both cases it was not an ordinary and normal education which brought these gentlemen to the level of high international intercourse. As a matter of fact, it can be the aim of only a very small number of young people to be, later on, secretaries of Colonel House or presidents of American Chambers of Commerce. But the possibility and readiness for approaching foreign elements of the world, and of the world of the living, not of the world of raw materials or of mere shipping figures, is certainly one of the instinctive aims of your present state of civilization. It was our last King, Louis Philippe, who used to maintain that the best test for a man's general talents was his power of mastering foreign language, as this ability shows not only a ready memory, but the power to understand other states of mind and different turns of thought and to approach in a mood of receptivity the results of what other sections of humanity have attained. France owes it greatly to her renewed interest in the foreign world to have led in many ways in this war: and you know that our great old man Clemenceau, a translator of John Stuart Mill and an inhabitant of your country in the sixties, possesses an immense advantage over some other statesman owing to his training in English, which he shares with so many of our countrymen.

Now, it is, I think, up to the world of educators to bring these tendencies to their proper shape. High school and college life ought to put the stamp of the present and of the near future on the beautiful potential material of American boys and girls. The educator has neither to scheme in the air nor to come lagging behind, but to construct the proper channels through which the energies of the time have to take a more definite course. I remember

that, being in Japan in those interesting hours when Marshal Nogi committed his well-known harakiri, and being admitted to the simple cottage of the departed soldier, where his brother was kneeling before the domestic altar, I was told a very characteristic detail concerning the man whom Japan was already ranking among her demigods. Nogi used to say that, if he had not been a soldier, he would have been a school-master; he considered the services rendered by teaching as equally important, for the national greatness of a country, as those needed from a leader of armies in a time of emergency. Now, I don't know to what extent America feels inclined to worship her school teachers as demigods. But I know that, in many parts, the educator is looked upon as one of the most important helpers in the broil of the present hour. I know, too, that the excellent *Bulletin* (No. 24) on *Commercial Education* issued by the Federal Board for Vocational Education, in drawing up the geographical divisions of the world from the point of view of the overseas commerce, observes that, there being some 10 or 12 commercial languages of importance and the selection seeming difficult, "the basic or cultural language which should be studied in school is French," proficiency in French being the key, not only to an important group of countries submitted to French influence, but also to that Eldorado of American dreams, and Spanish-Portuguese conflicts, Latin America. And this is only a practical view of the question; the cultural view being that the educator, looking for a platform on which to stand for a modern humanism embodying the best of the national, general, human tendencies of the Greek-Latin and modern tradition, can find no better ground than a proper presentation of French culture. You know that the first man killed on the western front in this war—or even before the beginning of the war, as German raiders had not awaited the declaration of war—was a French school teacher of twenty-one years, André Peugeot: I often think of him as the symbol of a struggle where brains, sacrifice, devotion of those who *know*, are bound to have their marvelous reward.

Such a reward will be a closer approach to French ideals by the educational circles of the whole world.

There is danger of possible misapprehension in our mutual good will. You must not forget that intellectual dispositions belong to complexes from which they cannot be detached and swallowed like pills. French reformers, who urge us to borrow from you, instantly, the competitive system in transportation, or the habit of baseball in colleges, forget that those features are only part of entire organisms. In the same way, nothing could be more dangerous than the belief that French versatility, or gentleness, or deductive turn of mind are ready-made, prepared for bottling, shipping and consummation, as would be a new kind of mineral water. We dispose rather of a method and attitude of mind than of a massive acquirement: and, this being the case, it is not easy to offer an exact definition of what your students will find in France and bring back here, of what the best French-trained Americans, or the best imported French, will spread about them. But, if I consider your countrymen of the past who took advantage of a real stay in intellectual France, how pleasant to see Oliver Wendell Holmes acknowledging to France, not breakfast table autocracy, but skill in clinic observation, clearightedness and distinct ideas! How encouraging to hear that one of your most "legal" leaders, Charles Sumner, brought back from France a more definite idea of legality, of the forms and ways of justice! How inspiring to read, in the latest, I think, of your educational confessions, *The Education of Henry Adams*, that, in the twentieth century, "the world contained no other spot than Paris where education can be pursued from every side, with no other school approaching it for variety of direction and energy of mind"!

These are, of course, exceptional summits which beckon us from the heights, and we cannot think of preparing distinctly our young men to be O. W. Holmes or Charles Sumner, Henry Adams or Clemenceau. But the sign given by the summits from the summits, specially in democratic times, shows us the real way. Let us look for improvement and betterment, not in the depths, in the fields of

quantities and vastnesses, but on the high plateau from where purer waters will run to the plains. Let us think first of directions and not of mass results, of distinction and not of multiplicity. Let us be confident that by the proper working of the democratic spirit, the broadening of the influences is bound to occur, if the influential elements are properly secured and made safe, in that great cause of Franco-American rapprochement, on which so many men are at work, at this very moment, on both sides of an ocean which seems now to be hardly a natural boundary for the mutual good will between two great countries.



### THE RELATION BETWEEN FRENCH "ENSEIGNEMENT SECONDAIRE" AND AMERICAN COLLEGES

Mlle. M. Marfaing, Agrégée de l'Université, Professor  
au Lycée de Bordeaux.

The new conditions created by the war and the relations recently established between French and American schools show every day more clearly how necessary it is to develop such international relations.

Though it is interesting and, no doubt, very useful for America to get in touch more closely with some other nations, such as South America, England and Italy, it seems that the best results may be obtained in bringing nearer each other France and the United States as they represent two systems of teaching,—different, but rich and original, while South America and Italy, for example, have taken several features from France and Germany.

The relations between French and American teaching have been started by the universities in both countries; professors have been exchanged between some French universities (Paris, Bordeaux, Grenoble) and some American ones (Harvard, Columbia), and we know we can rely upon them for the future of those relations. But nothing has been organized yet to put in touch our "Enseignement Secondaire" with American colleges, and it must be done because we think it as interesting for Americans to understand that branch of our teaching, which has its own spirit, as it would be useful for French teachers to know the activities, the new ideas and methods of American colleges.

How could we establish such relations? Exchanging pupils is a very pleasant system for the girls and boys sent abroad, and it may have good results, but nothing serious will be brought out until we have exchanged good teachers. In fact, it would be rather difficult for France to have many American teachers, though some of them could possibly teach English in our schools, but the number of schools in our "Enseignement Secondaire" is limited and we have already many teachers, while America certainly wants

teachers of French. It is a fact that in many American schools an increasing number of pupils are taking French (from a statement given at the meeting of the Association of American Colleges, the study of French in 1917-18 shows an increase of 13 per cent.), and it is certain that many good teachers would come if some of their desiderata were understood in America.

It seems that many French teachers in the States—nearly all—have not got in France the degrees necessary to teach over there. Of course they may be—and certainly many are—very good teachers, but it is obligatory to make a difference between them and those who come here, having the best situations in France, just to work for the best understanding between France and America. Concerning this last kind, it is necessary to emphasize two points,—the question of their salaries, and that of their relations with the chiefs of departments and presidents of colleges. We know in France that in America, like in the other countries of the world, teaching does not give much money; however, it is impossible to leave France for an amount that does not cover the high traveling expenses, the difference in the cost of living, and very often the losses we have by the fact of our departure. Teachers of the French “Enseignement Secondaire” ought to be offered at least two thousand dollars, while the same should not be given to those who have not got the same degrees and salaries in France.

As for their relations with the chiefs of departments and presidents, we want to have the same difference acknowledged between the two kinds of teachers. While it is perhaps necessary to give complete direction to the first group, we think that French teachers of our “Enseignement Secondaire” ought to have their own way along certain lines. What would be the use of having “exchange teachers” if they couldn’t change anything in their schools? If we come to show a different spirit and some different methods—and none of them would be subversive—we should like to be allowed to try them, at least to discuss them, but in some schools such liberty is not given yet.

A clear understanding of these facts would be the only way to establish strong relations between our secondary schools and American colleges, and we hope that in a very near day it will be successfully brought about.

Very clear explanations on French degrees are given in the article of M. Petit Dutailis, published in the bulletin of the Association of American Colleges (February, 1919), and those who want French teachers from our "Enseignement Secondaire" could apply to the Office National des Universites, 96 Boulevard Raspail, Paris.

**THE COLLEGES IN THE WAR AND AFTER**

Parke R. Kolbe, President of Municipal University of Akron.

It is manifestly impossible to describe college war activities in detail within the limits of a short paper. The response of our institutions for higher education to the call of war has been so universal and their activities have been so multitudinous that no effort can be made here to do more than outline a few indications of main tendencies. During the vital months of last March, April, May and June it was the speaker's good fortune to be associated as special collaborator with Dr. S. P. Capen, specialist in higher education of the Bureau of Education at Washington, with the specific assignment of studying college war activities. Elsewhere the results of these studies are available in greater detail. The present paper represents an attempt to pick out merely the leading features of the troublous period from April, 1917, to November, 1918. I shall attempt to do this under a number of sub-heads as follows:

1. *The First Reaction to the Declaration of War.*

It may be of interest to examine some of the particular effects caused in academic circles by the first few months of participation in the war. It can scarcely be said that surprise was one of the elements entering into the situation. The long series of German aggressions against American life and property on the high seas, culminating in the declaration of unrestrained submarine warfare, had fully prepared the minds of all for the inevitable result. Yet the actual declaration of war produced a shock which reacted perhaps even more violently by reason of the breaking of the long tension. With the stored up energy of long months of expectation the colleges plunged into the maelstrom of war preparation. It is not at all surprising that some things were done in the first rush of patriotic endeavor which later and calmer reasoning proved to be both futile and unwise. Doubtless much of the confusion arose from the mistaken belief that a nation's system of higher educa-

tion can be put upon a war basis over night. The social consciousness, the sense of obligation, the desire to be of the utmost service, all of these were magnified a thousand times in the space of a few days' time. Even staid old colleges which had formerly put up rigid bars between themselves and the modern ideas of community obligation, which had lived for and within themselves and the purely cultural ideals for which they had long stood, awoke to the call of patriotism and introduced unheard of innovations in matters of courses and credits.

The first reaction of the American college faculty was one of all-sacrificing patriotism—a feeling which has steadily grown and deepened and flowered into accomplishment in a hundred useful endeavors. At the same time the administrative officers of colleges throughout the land realized from the beginning the prime importance of higher education as a preparation for war needs and the necessity of some measures to insure its continuance. Concerted action seemed highly desirable but the lack of any comprehensive national organization of all types of universities and colleges was a bar to the calling of a nation-wide meeting. During March, 1917, however, the Council of National Defense was permanently organized and also its Advisory Commission, whose Committee on Science, Engineering and Education, under the chairmanship of President Hollis Godfrey of Drexel Institute, now stepped into the breach and summoned on May 5 the first general college meeting of the war period. This meeting, held in Continental Hall at Washington, was broadly representative, being attended by more than 150 representatives of the leading educational interests of the country. It is perhaps fair to say that these visitors came to Washington with two questions uppermost in their minds: first, "What can we do immediately for our country?" and second, "How can we operate our colleges as a national asset during the war period?"

At the conclusion of the meeting a strong protest was voiced by some of the members present against adjourning with nothing more accomplished than the passage of a mere set of resolutions. Such a protest was typical of the impa-

tience of the American college spirit of that period to be allowed to take part in the actual performance of war tasks. It ignored the necessity of a unification of interests and of such a general discussion as was accomplished by an inclusive preliminary meeting of the sort called by President Godfrey. Had the meeting served no other purpose it would have justified itself for the following reasons: it gave the college men of the country an opportunity to hear the inspiring message of Secretary of War Baker, personally delivered; it gave rise to much profitable interchange of individual ideas, and finally it served to fix in definite form the immediate points to be worked for. Had the college men of the country stopped here the meeting would have been profitless. As a matter of fact it served as a starting point for a number of individual efforts by smaller groups and it is significant that small groups have since that time succeeded in accomplishing many of the aims defined at the original meeting. Let us summarize this accomplishment briefly: the principle that college students should remain in college until the completion of their course has been endorsed by the highest government officials, subject of course to the regulations of the selective draft; college calendars and curricula have actually been modified as suggested, although only a few institutions have permanently adopted the four-quarter plan; technical and medical students have been sent back to their schools to complete their work; a comprehensive plan of governmental military training in college has been adopted; finally, a plan of communication between the colleges and the government has been worked out, not on the basis suggested by the meeting, but through the creation of the War Department's Committee on Education and Special Training. In view of all this, while the immediate accomplishment of the meeting seemed at the time unimportant, the academic world owes President Godfrey and his committee a debt of deepest gratitude for starting a movement which has been of such inestimable value to higher education in America.



2. *National Movements Toward Educational Cooperation.*

The initiative in evolving plans for cooperation between the educational system of the country and the government in the war crisis seems to have been all with the colleges. Fortunately there were leaders in all parts of the country who saw at once the possibilities for higher-educational war service. First of all the efforts in point of time comes the Intercollegiate Intelligence Bureau, founded by Dean William McClellan of the University of Pennsylvania in February, 1917, to undertake the immensely important work of selecting trained college men and women for their proper places in the scheme of national defense. By its efforts some four thousand persons were placed and its work was considered of sufficient importance to be taken over by the War Department itself in March, 1918.

During the most of 1917 the Committee on Engineering and Education of the Advisory Commission of the Council of National Defense led in the field of collegiate war effort. During the latter part of the year one of its sub-committees was instrumental, together with other organizations, in establishing the various student reserve corps (medical, engineering, etc.), doubtless the most important government recognition of education accorded up to that time. During the course of the year a new force appeared in the form of the recently organized War Department Committee on Classification of Personnel in the Army, which devised a system for the classifying of registrants, subject to the draft, on the basis of occupation, experience and education. The colleges owe a great debt of gratitude to Professor Walter Dill Scott of Northwestern University, the originator of this committee, since its activities did much to bring about the recognition of college training as a war asset. In direct alignment with this work arose the efforts which culminated, after many vicissitudes, in the formation of the Committee on Education and Special Training. Its activities are familiar to all college men and need no rehearsing here. The perspective of time will prove that its work in training thousands of technicians for the army in a few months' time represents one of the real achievements of

the period. In judging the ill-fated S. A. T. C. we should keep in mind two facts; namely, that it never received a fair chance to prove itself and that without it we should have had practically no college men at all at the opening of the last school year. It represented an honest effort by the War Department to devote the colleges to the national cause. The value of such official recognition will more than counterbalance the evils of the disorganization of the past few months, and as a result, college education in the United States will assume a higher place in the estimation of the American people.

In what has just been written an attempt has been made to indicate briefly some of the influences and movements which were active at Washington during 1917 in the development of a war program for the universities and colleges. Out of the initial confusion of the early spring several definite results had come: first, the establishment of the various student reserve corps; second, the formation of the Committee on Classification of Personnel in the Army; finally, the long struggle of interests which led up to the appointment of the Committee on Education and Special Training as an integral part of the War Department itself. Numerous things which the colleges desired to have accomplished remained still undone, as for example: governmental control of military training in all colleges desiring such an arrangement; the reservation of certain teachers from active military service, particularly in the applied sciences; governmental help for the private college during the war period, etc. Broadly speaking, however, the year had been one of accomplishment since it brought from the government acknowledgment in both word and deed of the fact that the American college had found its place in war as well as in peace.

The beginning of the year 1918 brought with it the first definite organized pan-collegiate agency, known as the Emergency Council on Education, with headquarters at Washington (Munsey Building). The movement for such an Emergency Council may be regarded as originating (although in somewhat different form) in the resolution

passed by the Association of American Colleges calling on the President of the United States to take steps looking toward the immediate comprehensive mobilization of the educational forces of the nation for war purposes under centralized administration, which would coordinate effort and stimulate defensive activities. It was hoped that the President might appoint an Educational Administrator who would act informally as a Secretary of Education and thus organize the educational interests of the country. When this was found to be impossible, representatives from the leading national societies met on January 30, 1918, and organized the Emergency Council on Education, later called the American Council on Education.

While all the organizations already mentioned have dealt with problems of college training in various forms, the field of research in higher educational institutions has also been immensely developed by the war. The various efforts have, to a large extent, been coordinated by the National Research Council, comprising the chiefs of the technical bureau of the army and navy, the heads of government bureaus engaged in scientific research, a group of investigators representing educational institutions and research foundations and another group including representatives of industrial and engineering research. The National Research Council now serves as the department of science and research of the Council of National Defense. While its activities include vastly more than the college and university field alone, much investigation is now being carried on in academic laboratories under the direction of the Council or its allied interests, and much of the work is being directed by college professors. Such service on the part of the colleges, while often not immediately evident, is a vital factor in winning the war.

### *3. The War Service of the Technical Sciences.*

Time will not allow mention here of the war services of all collegiate departments and so I must limit myself to a brief review of those whose nature enabled them to be of maximum usefulness. For much of the information

on conditions prior to the war I am indebted to Professor Mann's recent report on Engineering Education to the Carnegie Foundation and to Professor Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education.

Each new war of the last century has been based on a higher scientific plane than its predecessors by reason of the scientific achievements of the intervening periods of peace. More and more has science come to the aid of what we might call the less strictly military factors of war as, for example, transportation, health, production of munitions, construction, etc., etc. In fact, these attendant factors have reached such a stage of development that they rival in importance and surpass in extent the purely military activities. Thus a whole nation may well enlist nowadays in a war, for the army is more and more dependent on the efforts of its workers at home. These activities are almost always determined by technical knowledge and carried out under the supervision of scientifically trained men. It is impossible to over estimate the extent to which science dominates modern warfare and its attendant activities. The reasons why this war is preeminent in scientific achievement are evident from the fact that prior to the beginning of the Civil War there existed only four engineering schools or courses in the country: Rensselaer, Lawrence of Harvard, Sheffield of Yale, and the civil engineering course at the University of Michigan. In Dr. Mann's words "The four schools of 1860 increased to seventeen by 1870, to forty-one by 1871, to seventy by 1872 and to eighty-five by 1880. The number of students has increased from fourteen hundred in 1870 to thirty-three thousand in 1917, and the annual number of graduates in engineering from one hundred in 1870 to forty-three hundred. Then there were less than three graduates per million population; now, there are about forty-three per million."

At the risk of being tiresome I shall read to you the various scientific needs of the military service as culled from the Index of Occupations published by the Committee on Personnel, since it illustrates most comprehensively just how much the colleges have been able to do in training

for war service. The army sought men with the following types of training:

Aeronautical Engineer *	Railroad
Analyst, food	Structural Steel
Architect	Water Supply and Drainage
Engineer	Dentist
Landscape	Draftsman
Naval, Ship and all Craft	Electrical Engineer
Supervising	Electrotherapeutist
Automobile Engineer	Epidemiologist
Bacteriologist	Forester
Food	Heating and Ventilating Engineer
General	Hydrotherapeutist
Water and Ice	Mathematician, Expert
Cartographer	Calculus
Chemical Engineer	Computer, General
Chemist	Trigonometry
Acids and Dyes	Mechanical Engineer
Analytical	Meteorologist
Cement	Mining Engineer
Explosives	Neurologist
Fire Works	Nurse
Food Analyst	Optician
Inorganic	Osteopath
Metallurgical	Pharmacist
Organic	Physician
Paint Mill	Physicist
Pickles	Psychiatrist
Poisonous Gases	Psychologist
Soaps	Sanitary Engineer
Civil Engineering	Scientific Observer
Bridge	Sewage Disposal Expert
Buildings	Surgeon
Concrete	Surveyor
Highways or Streets	Topographer
Hydraulics	Veterinarian
Hydro Electric Power Plant	
Irrigation	

#### 4. *The Effect of the War on Academic Conditions.*

In order to be brief the information here presented will deal with the final results of various inquiries and investigations rather than with the operations and methods necessary to their acquirement. The conditions pictured are those of last summer. Let us examine first the status of modern language teaching. An inquiry circulated among more than 200 American colleges showed that 23 had dropped German entirely; 2 had omitted it for the summer session; 8 had offered it and found no students for its study, while 177 reported no change in their previous policy of offering German on the same basis as other modern languages. There is, however, quite naturally a marked tendency to prefer native-born teachers and to examine text books closely. The truest index of the changes which the war has brought in modern language teaching is to be found in the actual number of those pursuing the various languages during the last two years, as reckoned for 210 colleges:

	1916-17	1917-18	
German .....	21,072	12,652	40% decrease
French.....	17,129	19,352	13% increase
Spanish.....	1,736	9,579	452% increase

The numbers and varieties of "war courses" taught during the past two years are bewildering. Without detail there follows the result of an inquiry answered by 147 institutions. The first column indicates the department giving war courses, the second the number of institutions reporting war courses in the corresponding department:

Chemistry .....	21	History and International	
Physics .....	10	Law .....	29
Mathematics .....	6	Economics and Sociology	14
Military Engineering....	12	Agriculture .....	14
Ship Construction, Navigation, and Ocean		Red Cross Courses....	23
Transportation .....	22	Home Economics.....	90
Aeronautical Science....	10	Nursing .....	10
Biology .....	12	Modern Languages....	32
English .....	4	Secretarial Work and	
Political Science.....	10	Stenography .....	18
		Psychology .....	2
		Philosophy .....	2



The following courses for war purposes are offered by one institution each: Astronomy, Meteorology, Geology, International Ethics, Photography, Public Speaking in American Ideals, Camouflage. As is evident, the courses just mentioned take no account of the great field of medicine nor of military training.

It may be of interest to this body to know something of the expression of college sentiment toward military training in the spring of 1918 on the part of those institutions then without R. O. T. C. units. The following figures were collected by the Bureau of Education for the information of the War Department's Committee on Education and Special Training. The question assumed the form of an inquiry as to the desire of the various colleges regarding the installation of government controlled military training. In reply 143 institutions expressed a wish for the establishment of such training and only 19 returned unfavorable opinions. A short time afterward came the announcement by the War Department of its first comprehensive military training plan for the fall of 1918. In view of our recent experience with the S. A. T. C. a summary of the opinions for and against, as expressed last spring, is here given. Much of it is truly prophetic:

*Opinions Favoring.*

Number of colleges believing that—

It will help in obtaining universal military training....	5
It will improve discipline.....	16
It will promote greater loyalty and cooperation with the government .....	22
It will beget respect for authority.....	3
It will guarantee first-class equipment, uniformity of standards, and high class training.....	46
It will improve physical development of students.....	9
It will guarantee more cooperation on the part of students on account of government prestige.....	30
It will be of financial help to the college and to the students .....	12

*Opinions Not Favoring.*

Number of colleges fearing that—	
The college program will be upset or crowded.....	14
A military spirit will be created.....	3
Military trainers will have an immoral influence on the college .....	2

Early in the period of our participation in the war the colleges were officially urged to adopt the four-quarter system. Examination shows that this advice went largely unheeded. A total of 230 colleges reporting in the spring of 1918 show that 111 had made no modification in their regular calendar plan. Of the remainder, 107 had lengthened the summer vacation by condensing the school year and only 12 had adopted the four-quarter plan, nine of these being located west of the Mississippi. The S. A. T. C. plan made the four-quarter system mandatory, but the general tendency already seems to be to go back to the semester plan.

Among the most difficult of all problems of college war policy was that of the continuance of relation between college and faculty members in war service, either military or civilian. From a total of 225 colleges reporting, only 11 stated that the salary was continued during absence on war duty. Twenty-one adopted the policy of making up the difference between the government pay and the former college salary, while 85 stated definitely that the salary ceased on leaving academic services. One hundred and four institutions stated that no general policy had been adopted and in most cases it was to be inferred that salary was not allowed in deciding individual cases.

No factor of college life during the war period has been so uncertain as student attendance. The first call to arms affected not only the older students, but the younger ones as well, since the selective draft principle had not yet been formulated and volunteering held sway. The summer of 1917 represents the period of division between the first rush of thoughtless enthusiasm and the maturer second thought of a country awakened to the importance

of maintaining a supply of trained men. However, the loss during the school year 1917-18 continued to be great and threatened the very continuance of the colleges. The following table covering 180 colleges is illuminating:

Per cent. of war loss of men students September, 1917, to April, 1918.	Number of Institutions.
10% or less .....	28
11% to 20% .....	86
21% to 30% .....	34
31% to 40% .....	17
41% to 50% .....	9
More than 50% .....	6

Time forbids details regarding the student losses in technical and professional schools, but in general they are greater than the average for all students of college grade, except possibly where the formation of student reserve corps prevented.

The most significant tendency in war-time education has been the nationalization of the colleges. During the war the "private" college has ceased to exist. With the coming of the S. A. T. C. plan colleges passed under government control, and it is safe to predict that this nationalization will in some form remain a factor in higher education after the war. The actual conduct of the institutions has of course been re-entrusted to the original administrators, but the spectacle of all American colleges working on the same plan is too rare and edifying a sight to merit complete obliteration. One fairly sure result of war co-ordination will doubtless be the creation of a national Secretary of Education, a step which cannot be much longer delayed. Just how to reconcile such a form of national supervision with private or state control has always been a puzzle, but war may have now shown one way toward its solution. In the event of the adoption of universal national military training, some modified form of the present S. A. T. C. plan is entirely probable as a permanent element in college life, and the consequent regulation of the supply of college students is so vital that its

administration deserves the best educational skill obtainable. Such power, if exercised nationally, should be in the hands of a government official responsible only to the President of the United States himself—an official who can work on a basis of equal authority with the War Department. A second factor of control will probably come with the increase of government subsidies for education on a national scale, as exemplified, for instance, in the Smith-Hughes act for vocational training. If a National University be not established according to pre-war proposals, the government has it within its power to weld together most of the higher educational institutions of the country into an even greater national university by the judicious establishment of national funds to subsidize higher education for specific purposes of national import, as for example, the training of public servants, teachers, etc. The administration of such broadly conceived projects under a national Secretary of Education would do more to standardize and unify higher education than a century of private effort, and while many may hesitate at the possible relinquishment of entire individual autonomy, the war has taught as its greatest lesson the value of a certain degree of centralized governmental control—a doctrine which the past two years have developed to unthought of proportions in our country.

And what of the millions of young men who will return from the camps and overseas, living actors in the greatest of all demonstrations of practical efficiency? It is inevitable that the types of education whose services have done most to win the war will enter upon a career of development hitherto unknown. These students will come back to us in numbers, and it is just possible that the cut-and-dried formalism of our old education may not satisfy men who have looked life and death in the face. A short year or two ago we might regard them with the easy superiority of our own maturity—we might hedge them in with rules of conduct and prescribe their course of study with an easily assumed infallibility. Will this be true again when the soldiers of the army of the United States return to their colleges?

The war has come as a time of trial to the colleges of the United States. Had it come twenty years ago it is doubtful whether the services which then lay in their power to perform would have brought them through the ordeal with the same degree of honor and acknowledged usefulness as is now the case in this great war of the present day. But it cannot be too strongly insisted upon that the war must be regarded from the college viewpoint not only as a trial but also as the greatest of opportunities. The growth of contact between the college and the world, due largely to the close relations between science and industry, had prepared the way for the development of the sense of responsibility to society which has marked college life during the last two decades. No more fitting preparation could have been found for the great ordeal of war. It is as if civilization itself had begun years ago to make ready the academic world for the services which were to be demanded in the great crisis. And, now, when that crisis is past, when the sun of peace is beginning to shine, through the black clouds of war, the colleges of the United States may in serene confidence look ahead to the years to come, may in all humility realize that they have done their part in freeing the world, and may justly expect to share in the rewards of the future.

**MILITARY TRAINING IN THE COLLEGES**

F. J. Morrow, Colonel, General Staff, Committee on Education and Special Training, War Department.

It is a very great pleasure to the members of the committee and the other representatives of the War Department to be here this morning and to have this opportunity to talk with you. I have already learned something in my attendance on your session, and as I listened to the somewhat militant discussion on one of your resolutions the thought occurred to me that if ever again anyone ever says to me that college life tends to destroy the combative spirit, I am going to tell him that he is mistaken.

In fact, the thought has entered my mind as to whether or not I am sufficiently armed this morning; whether I am sufficiently intrenched in my position to meet the electrical atmosphere that there is here, because, gentlemen, we come on a very friendly mission. We come here primarily to learn and if we can in turn be of any assistance to you or offer any explanation that will clear up any little troubles that you may have had, or give enlightenment or consideration to the R. O. T. C. unit, we are here for that purpose.

This war has unquestionably proved to the country that the educated man is a very important asset when it comes to a time of national emergency. The educational institutions have more than justified themselves in their service to the country at such a time. Where military training has been conducted in institutions in the past, its value to the government during the last year and a half has been unquestionable.

It was my good fortune to be with the first division that went overseas with General Pershing and we started very soon after arrival courses of training for the introduction of the new features of warfare. I think that the American army in the Civil War introduced and developed trench warfare, but there had been advances made since then; modern improvements and scientific inventions had created new features. We established schools and we sent



our officers and non-commissioned officers to our schools before they went into the line. Through that period I can assure you, gentlemen, that the value of the educated man showed itself, asserted itself most strongly.

When the time came for our troops to go into the front line trenches and have their first experience all those who had been associated with them and who were responsible for their training, of course, felt some anxiety. We had had warfare in this country and we knew what a battle meant and we were not strangers to the smell of smoke, but there were new conditions over there and, of course, the thought would arise, "Will our men be equal to it?"

Well, the very first experience of our men in the front line trenches cleared up at once any misgivings that anyone might have had on that score. The natural native qualities of our manhood, the American young men, their courage, dash, initiative, and spirit were proved at once. It was a matter of admiration to both the French and the British. The King of England said that the American troops put pep into the allies.

I like to think of the young officer we had in our school that went from our school to the front line trenches. He was caught in the very front line trenches and the Germans put down a barrage with a view of raiding. He was driven to the dugout and there remained during this heavy barrage. All at once the head of a German officer appeared at the dugout and demanded him to come out. He came out but he did not come out with his hands up, saying "Kamerad," he came out and as soon as he reached the door he made a spring. He overcame the officer, finished the officer. The patrol that was accompanying the German officer fled across No Man's Land and the American officer alone followed them more than 100 yards, using his revolver. There were many other instances of that sort that left no question as to what the native qualities of our American boys are.

We had at that institution two highly educated young officers who had been in the service only six months. They

were in the artillery school and the commandant of that school said that one of those youngsters, who had specialized in mathematics in college and had gone into the matter of artillery mathematics and ballistics pertaining to the French guns, was able to talk ballistics with the leading French artillery experts; that they all recognized that he had a complete mastery of that subject. The other officer had gone down into the French shop and had studied and worked with the French material. He had himself constructed a French 75 mm. gun. That officer could discuss French material with any officer of the French army.

Those are gratifying proofs of what education will enable a man to do and what our men will do under stress of circumstances such as we have passed through during the last year. Another thing that we have learned through this experience is that our men, our educated men grasped the rudiments of the drill and the mechanics of the drill very quickly and very readily in those camps, with the intensive atmosphere and purpose.

I realize that we must consider your problems; that your problems are vital; that if military training cannot be made to serve a useful purpose in the institution and contribute to the direct benefit of the student, that it will not receive your consideration. We are confident that it will justify itself to you, to the students, and to the parents.

To the boy, the important problem is that he is to fit himself for his work in life and that the colleges must naturally respond to that demand and they must be able to meet it.

The other day in Washington there was a meeting of the Advisory Committee of University Presidents on Summer Camps. President Lowell of Harvard uttered a statement which I thought was very broad and big. He is a believer in military instruction in colleges. He has original ideas as to just what the form that instruction should be at Harvard. He wants to make the graduates of Harvard come out with a very comprehensive knowledge of the military art. His thought was this: He said, "As I see it, it doesn't make a great deal of difference as to what the

subject matter is that a man receives in college: the object is to send him forth with a trained mind. Now," he says, "I see that we can get that training of mind by utilizing military subjects; we can use it to give the student a broader education; we can also use it for the purpose of securing the trained mind.

It seems to me that we all should view it from that viewpoint; whether or not it cannot be made to serve a purpose. I realize that any features that cannot serve a purpose for you will not be embraced.

I feel a good deal as though we were in this attitude. The War Department and those who are interested in this, have something to sell to the institution; that unless we have something that the institution wants, that they can use, that they can turn over and pass on to their customers that they are going to buy, even though the matter has great virtue, that if it is not presented to you in proper form, in a commercial sized package so to speak, that you will not accept it; that you would say, "It is all very desirable and very good, if it were put up in a different form. In other forms we could use it." So that point must be considered and we wish to make it so. What we wish to know, to learn from you, is what it should be, what you want, and we are going to strive to so furnish it.

Now, looking at this wholly from the government point of view, I think it is a loss if we do not utilize every institution that deals with any form of instructions. That no matter how small their numbers may be, they should not be lost sight of; that we should not strive simply to satisfy and meet the great, big, large institutions. The R. O. T. C. system should be capable of universal application.

The war seems to me to have demonstrated in a very large and convincing manner, the benefits that may be derived from military training in educational institutions. The general testimony of the schools that conducted vocational training units of the S. A. T. C. is that they never saw men learn so rapidly or make such satisfactory progress with their studies as has been the case in the past few

months when the work has been conducted in combination with military training. While the spirit and snap that have manifested may in large measure be due to the general outbreak of patriotic spirit, it is also due to the blending that was there secured between the true military training and effective school work. The purpose of the military training is not to reduce men to automaton, but rather to develop their resourcefulness, their team play, their coordination with one another in accomplishing a common purpose, and their spirit of service to the public welfare. The manner in which the brief military experience of our country has opened our eyes to these facts makes us hope that their significance will not be soon forgotten. The R. O. T. C. offers an opportunity for continuing these beneficial results and every effort is being made by the committee to administer the instruction in such manner as to assure the largest possible achievement of these ends.

It is clear to us that these ends cannot be accomplished without closest cooperation between the military and the educational authorities. We recognize that military training is no longer an end in itself but is a means toward securing educational results which the ordinary school system does not as a rule secure. We recognize that it must from henceforth be handled as a matter of educational development rather than as a matter of military necessity and that to this end the closest cooperation between the two is essential. It is with this spirit that we have come here today and our presence should indicate to you our sincerity in this important matter.

Before this Advisory Committee of the Universities met in Washington the other day, the Secretary of War appeared and he had a very few remarks to make, which it seems to me would be of interest to you gentlemen. He says:

"I have come over because it was said to me that this committee would be interested in knowing the Department's attitude on military instruction. I am sure you will pardon me if I preface my remarks on that subject with an appreciation of the worth of the colleges in this

crisis. I will not take your time to go into that at large because the facts are known to you as well as to me, because you saw your boys march out of your college walls. You saw them mold the great army of the United States. I think there never was such an army on the globe. With the work of educational institutions as a foundation it seems to me easy to say what the Department's attitude ought to be in preparing for the next call to duty. We all entertain the devout hope that no such call will come again. We do not know whether that will be so or not. When it came it was fortunate that our country had within it so much readiness to respond to the call.

"My own hope is that there will be a very widespread adoption of the R. O. T. C. plans and practices in colleges of the country and the Department will be very glad to have you gentlemen as educators formulate such plans as you think of value to the War Department and the country. It seems to me quite impossible to get in times of profound peace the interest of the young men as we could in times of war. It seems to me it will be difficult to prevent the R. O. T. C. from becoming a secondary matter in times of peace. There are some very handsome things we have discovered about military discipline and military practice applied to young men of collegiate age. The discipline of men, the courtesies which grow out of relations of military men among themselves are very fine additions to what we have been able to get in the colleges of the country.

"I should hope as a citizen and as Secretary of War that the lessons which the soldiers learned in keeping themselves 'fit to fight' would not be forgotten. If there are any questions which any one wants to ask I shall be very happy to answer them.

"I desire to again express my profound gratitude to the colleges for what they did before the war in preparing this strong vigorous body of men, particularly for the way the colleges lent themselves to the S. A. T. C. We have discovered, of course, in this war that modern war is not conventional. It is different from any war we have had. The next war will probably be a greater conflict

with science than this has been. The colleges should give large attention to the application of science to warfare.

"West Point has from the beginning of the country been the place where we educate officers. The four years' course had to take the place of collegiate and post-graduate education both. Four years is not enough. As a consequence we developed special schools like the Staff School at Fort Leavenworth, Coast Artillery at Fort Monroe. I think that ought to be developed very largely.

"I suppose that every human being hopes that poisonous gas will be used again in war. Yet I expect we have a better hope of persuading men not to fight than to persuade them not to use gas, so that it will be necessary for us to know all about poisonous gases and we are just the kind of people who can safely have the knowledge and not use it unless it is the appropriate thing to do.

"I hope therefore that in applying the military training idea to the collegiate activities of the country there will be no thought of leaving out specialized sciences. I hope the adoption of such military training in colleges is consistent with your own plan."

It may be of interest to know what the response of the educational institutions has been already to the R. O. T. C. The number of institutions that have made requests for such units has been over 340. Two hundred and sixty institutions have been authorized to initiate units.

There are certain problems that came up with reference to the S. A. T. C. I think all you gentlemen realize the necessity for establishing the S. A. T. C.; the conditions under which they were inaugurated, the difficulties that they had to combat and the unfortunate point was its very short life. In the matter of obstacles we must not overlook the "Flu," which had, I think, a very discouraging effect on it.

It is probably needless for me to say that one of the features of the S. A. T. C. was that it had to be introduced and conducted by officers who were new to the service; men who were themselves but recently inducted into the service. I know that there was trouble in some institutions, although



in others we get reports of the entire harmonious operation of such units.

It may be said of the S. A. T. C. as it is true of the R. O. T. C., that its quality was dependable on the character of the men who had it in charge, and the proper co-operation of the institutional authorities.

It has been evident in one or two other associations when we have had a chance to meet and talk with educators, that they have a fear that in establishing the R. O. T. C. that some of the prejudicial experiences of the S. A. T. C. may be repeated. To prevent the likelihood of that, the following letter has been distributed to the professors of Military Science and Tactics and to the District Inspectors:

1. "The existing regulations for the R. O. T. C. are embodied in General Orders 49, War Department, September 20, 1916. It is expected that the entire order will be studied to the point that every officer and enlisted man will have an intimate knowledge of all its provisions and an understanding of the operation of the R. O. T. C. units under it.

2. "Paragraphs twenty-six to thirty-one prescribe the duties of officers and non-commissioned officers on duty with educational institutions. Particular attention is invited to paragraph twenty-seven which prescribes the relations that must exist between the representatives of the Army and the institution. It is stated therein that professors or assistant professors of Military Science and Tactics will observe the general usages and regulations established in the institution affecting the duties and obligations of other members of the faculty. Such officers being members of the faculty must sustain the same relation to the administrative head of the institution that is sustained by the other members of the faculty, and seek to maintain friendly and cordial relations with all the authorities of the institution. Any independence of attitude on the part of the military representatives which implies a hostile relationship to the authorities of the institution can only be prejudicial to their usefulness, and of itself suggests that the officer is not a suitable one for duty with that institution.

3. "Paragraph twenty-eight indicates the procedure for bringing the attention of the War Department to conditions which the military representative may not consider satisfactory. It is their duty to report to the War Department such unsatisfactory conditions as in their opinion require adjustment. The reporting of such matters is not an act of disloyalty to the heads of the institution. On the contrary, it is their express duty to do so, and the educational authorities understand that General Orders 49 so provide."

Along in that connection with the duties and responsibilities of the officers with the institution comes the question of the matter of the selection, of the detailing of such officers, and there is every desire on the part of the War Department to secure from the heads of the institutions a selection, a combined co-operative effort to get the men that they want, and with that in view this has been prepared and will go out to the heads of institutions:

"The Committee on Education and Special Training desires to secure the co-operation of the institutions in the selection of officers as professors of Military Science and Tactics, and invites their recommendations as to appointments. It will, of course, be realized that it will not always be possible for the committee to secure the detail of specially desired officers, due to the requirements of other branches of the service, but the institutions are assured that every possible effort will be made to do so. Where it is not possible to secure the officers first requested the institutions will be frankly informed of the fact, with the hope that further preferences may be transmitted.

"As it will be the desire to detail officers who will be suitable and acceptable to the institution, it will also be the policy to remove officers from institutions where, through temperamental and other deficiencies, they are not able to work efficiently and harmoniously with the authorities of the institution. It is, therefore, requested that the heads of institutions will make request for the relief of undesirable officers, stating the reasons for the consideration of the War Department.

"Until otherwise stated, the R. O. T. C. will be di-

rectly administered by the Committee on Education and Special Training through various district offices, and it is requested that communications bearing on the above be forwarded direct to that committee, Mills Building, Washington, D. C."

We felt that General Order 49 which was issued and promulgated before the war, should possibly be changed; that it should be modified so as to make it more flexible. Now, in visiting the various institutions which range all the way from the very largest and most complex institutions down to the smallest, it is very evident that conditions are different and we have a feeling that possibly that order should be changed in order that there will be authority for making the character and type of the R. O. T. C. unit at any institution thoroughly applicable to that institution. That the big, general purposes and objectives will be the same but the means and methods of reaching them will be adapted to the conditions in each institution, and with that in mind we solicit from you suggestions that will enable us to re-draft it so that that may be possible. If you will, through your committee, and if you will individually write to the committee recommending any change, specific changes or suggesting any general purpose or intent in the order that ought to be altered, it will receive our most hearty consideration. We cannot make it what it should be if we do not get help from you. You know, it is very easy to state what the general purposes of the unit should be. What the needs are in your institutions we can only learn from you.

I would like to mention one or two other subjects on which we would like to get information from you. One is on the big subject of summer camps. It seems as though summer camps had more than justified themselves before the war. In 1917 if the war had not come upon us there was every indication that there would have been over 100,000 students in the summer camps in the summer of 1917. Now, if those were popular before the war, can't they be made so now? And we feel that this should be a very necessary and important part of the R. O. T. C.

You have already mentioned the matter of remuneration and that in its various forms will be considered.

The Association of Land Grant Institutions in Baltimore the other day passed these resolutions. They are very short, barely more than one page. Permit me to read them. These were their resolutions which they were going to act on:

"1. That the colleges in this Association, adhering to their long established practice, heartily support the continuance of military instruction in the colleges and urge the adequate provision for carrying into effect the principal features of General Orders No. 49 under the authority of the National Defense Act of June 3, 1916.

"2. That this Association urges the importance of an increased allowance for subsistence.

"3. That this Association urges also some method of issuing uniforms that shall make sure provisions for promptness of delivery and a plan for fitting the uniform to the size of the student."

It was said at that meeting that when a man gets on an ill-fitting suit he goes out in the world and feels that his clothes do not fit him and God don't love him and he has no friends. I know General Pershing regarded it as of sufficient importance so that he made the American Army dress over there in France as they never had dressed before. As one of our officers said when he was told he could not wear a certain uniform, "By George, this is the most dressed-up war I ever went to."

General Pershing made us all brace up and I think you will find all the men coming back are braced up and smarter looking than when they went over. Of course, we are in full accord with this. The members of the R. O. T. C. should look the very best.

"4. That this Association approves such an amendment of the National Defense Act of 1916 as shall make possible an adequate detail of properly qualified officers of suitable rank and directs the Executive Committee to present this matter to the Secretary of War and to Congress.

"5. That this Association approves the principle of pay to the student while in the summer camps and directs the Executive Committee to urge this upon the Committee on Education and Special Training, upon the Secretary of War, and upon Congress.

"6. That this Association authorizes a committee for correspondence and conference with the Committee on Education and Special Training for preparing and adjusting the curricula and courses of study for academic credit under the provisions of General Orders No. 49.

"7. The Association, in the interest of efficiency and good administration, urges that in the detail of officers the colleges be consulted and that officers detailed be instructed to report to the president of the college and assigned as a member of the faculty subject to the usual authority, rules and regulations of the college or university."